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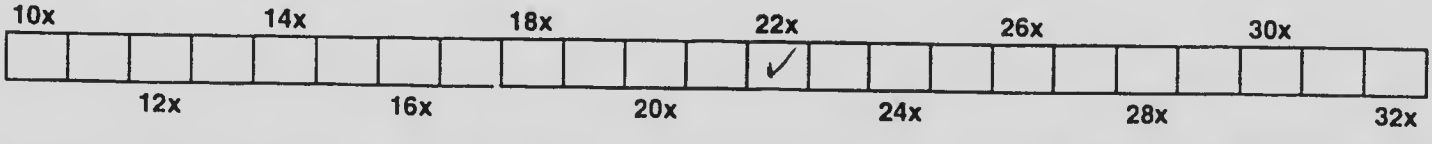

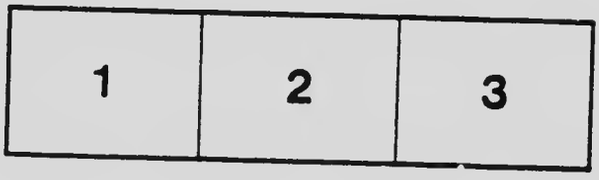

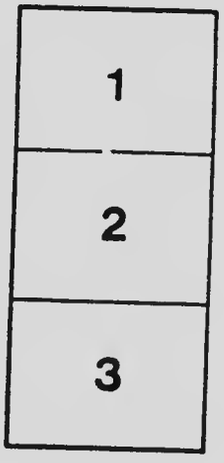

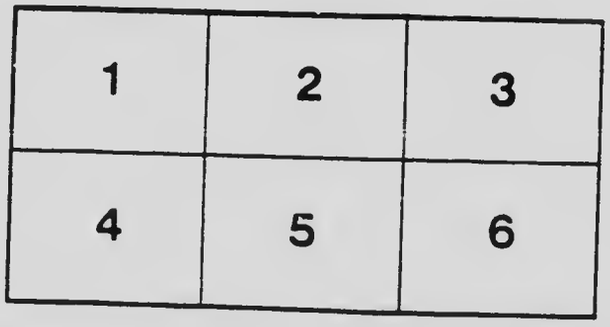

The STATE CONTROL OF EDUCATION

by

F. HOUCHEN LINGWOOD

Submitted to Queen's University in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy

The STATE CONTROL *of* EDUCATION

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PREFACE.

Among the many changes which the nineteenth century has witnessed in education in both the Old and the New World, none has been more general or more far-reaching in its effects than the increasing share which State control has assumed in moulding, through increased centralization, the educational systems developed by the more civilized States of Europe and America.

For centuries the Church presided over education, and when her power declined, private enterprise, under many limitations, strove to make up the deficiency. Rarely did the State by charter or by legislation assist the education of its citizens, except that of the favored classes, preferring, for various reasons, to leave the somewhat meagre assistance given to the masses to the initiative of local bodies.

Although material for an account of early State efforts is not readily accessible, yet even for the five countries treated in the following sketch it would fill a large-sized volume. Nothing more has been here attempted than a discussion of the main features which the course of State control has exhibited in England, France, Germany, the United States, and Ontario, chiefly during the nineteenth century, and as near the present date (1911) as recent reports would allow.

I have thought it best to place the general consideration of the subject in a separate part, leaving to a second section the drier details of the growth of control in various departments.

In addition to consulting the usual original sources and reports, I have read the works named in Appendix A.

I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to Mr. Alley, chief librarian, and to Mr. Barnes and Miss King, assistant librarians, at the Normal School, for unfailing courtesy and assistance in supplying the necessary material for the fol-

lowing pages. This library (in St. James' Square, Toronto) has been of late considerably augmented, especially in the interests of the teacher, and is not, I consider, as widely known to the profession as it deserves to be.

My chief debt, however, is to Dean W. S. Ellis, M.A., B.Sc., of the Faculty of Education, Queen's University, Kingston, not only for helpful direction, criticism and suggestions, but also for the stimulating friendship which turned my attention to pedagogical studies.

PART I.

Chapter I.

INTRODUCTION.

While education has at all times been considered an important factor in social life and in the growth of the nation, its extension has varied widely in accordance with national policy; at one period restricted in its field, as is seen in Egyptian and in Grecian history, where the former limited it to the priestly craft, the latter to the nobles of Athens and Sparta; at another period extended—however crudely—to all portions of civilized Europe through the agency of the Roman Church.

Through whatever channels it has flowed, education has been more or less controlled by some strong, and for the time, efficient force. In the palmy days of the Roman Empire under Hadrian and his successors professors were appointed in almost every important town throughout her wide dominions. (Seyffert, p. 207.) When the inroads of the barbarians came, and from these and other causes Rome's empire fell into decay, the Church took up the burden not only of spiritual administration, but of social and educational supervision as well. Long after the struggle between Church and State as rival institutions had resulted in the triumph of the latter, the Church retained her grasp upon education, especially so where the uplift of the masses was concerned. This was due partly to the fact that the Church was the only field for educational ability and partly because she alone cared for the masses, who were regarded by others as mere pawns in the great war game which went on in Europe during the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

By the middle of the eighteenth century there came a change: forces long maturing united for action; the individual as a social unit became of worth to the nation; the growth of liberty in America, the writings of the philoso-

phers of the Enlightenment, the gospel of Rousseau, the researches of the Economists, the Industrial Revolution, the stress of wider commercial rivalry—all tended to rescue the proletariat from the position it had occupied in the preceding centuries. The education of the nation as a whole demanded direction, control and machinery far beyond the power of the Church to supply, and thus the burden shifted from her shoulders to those of the State.

Thus, one of the most striking features of the growth of educational systems during the nineteenth century has been the increase of State control. Whether we regard the nations of Western Europe or the two English-speaking peoples of the North American continent, the history of education is one of increasing centralization, of subordination of local authority, of wider national aims, of correlation of all branches into a system supported largely by State-grants, and at length administered by State officials under more or less bureaucratic regulations.

That this is so is attested by the utterances of leading educators in different countries. Professor Welton says: "The nineteenth century saw the final working out of the idea that the State should be substituted for the Church as the official agent of education"; Dr. Draper considers that the two fundamental principles of the century are the growth of State control with the growth of State inspection and supervision. An English writer states: "For the last century there has been a stern struggle to create a national system in England"; an American State Superintendent of Education, treating of the same subject, avers: "The rise of modern nations has seen the rapid transfer of the control and support of education from voluntary organizations to public agencies."

Although increasing interest in the relation of the State to national education has led to more extended reference to that subject, material for its history (except in scattered paragraphs) is not readily available, nor has the subject—so far as I am aware—received general treatment. From

many sources, most of which have been indicated in the Bibliography of Appendix A, I have attempted to arrange these scattered references into a more coherent form. The historical evidence, however, being practically the history of education in leading American and European States during the last century, I could only select the details bearing upon important sections of the subject, such as Attendance, Teacher-training, Curriculum, etc. Moreover, had these details been interspersed throughout the body of the discussion, the treatment would have been so disjointed that I have preferred to place the historical development under separate headings in a second part of the essay.

A national system of education presupposes a national ideal consciously aimed at by its founders and promoters. Now, the roots of progress are not merely political, as is usually taken for granted, but are mainly social. Society, again, is a resultant condition of action and environment in preceding periods, a condition which will differ considerably according to race, to national, and to industrial limitations. It is clear, therefore, that the causes of State control may best be considered by noting the national aim in education of each country, and by showing briefly how these have arisen from, or been modified by, political, industrial or historical conditions.

The influence of political changes upon education is best seen in English-speaking countries, and is a part of that movement known as the "Rise of Democracy." In the middle of the nineteenth century the balance of power so long held by the upper and middle classes shifted to an increasing control by the masses through manhood franchise. One of the demands of the Chartists in England was popular education, a cause supported by the great writers Carlyle and Ruskin; and after the Bill of 1867 an English minister is quoted as saying "We must now educate our new masters." The same democratic movement is conspicuous throughout the United States after the Civil War. When measures of national importance were liable

to be controlled by an uneducated public, the nation's best policy was a complete compulsory education for all its future citizen-masters.

History shows that under no conditions is the old saw, "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing," more applicable than in political matters, especially in those which have to deal with questions of international or imperial importance. In order that national ideals may not be subverted, the United States has been compelled by the rapid influx of illiterate foreigners to lay emphasis upon education and to strengthen the prevalent attitude of State control.

The most potent force, however, in the centralization of education has been the change in industrial conditions in the chief countries of the world. "World-wide competition and close connection through rapid transit have shattered the insularity of the educational needs of all civilized nations." The complexity of modern life has developed such conditions that public consciousness of increasing new needs has determined the character of recent legislation. The stress of commercial rivalry has enabled nations like Germany and France to impose highly centralized systems upon the people, while in England, Canada and the United States the same cause has led to greater unification of existing systems and to the filling up of gaps between various grades of schools. The whole question of the deterioration of intelligence in the processes of industry, or of waste in creative vocations, has thus been a matter of investigation and of public concern, which, since it touches the public weal, has been a question demanding an answer from the legislative bodies responsible for national welfare. Such demand, it is plain, can only be met by increased direction and increased expenditure at the hands of the State. It is not surprising, therefore, to find civilized countries organizing higher technical education and aiding it by generous grants, or to find a writer on national life exclaiming: "It is certain that without an efficient secondary system in England, it will not be possible for the next generation

to compete successfully in the markets of the world"—or to find the writer of "Causes of the Recent Industrial Progress of Germany" giving space to a full explanation of her educational system; again (to quote Dr. Carlton), "The educational movement of the last two or three decades is essentially a working class movement, and its future is bound up in the welfare of the industrial and agricultural classes." As long as the welfare of the State was largely dependent on the skill and knowledge of its leaders, and international rivalry was mainly concerned with war and conquest or with questions of distant exports, whatever assistance the State gave was in encouragement of secondary or higher education; but popular franchise and industrial competition have adjusted the balance in such a way that "the intelligent use of the vote and progressive efficiency in a vocation tend more to render the State stable or to strengthen its competitive power than the mere training of a select few." It is generally conceded, therefore, in the twentieth century that the State is the most effective instrument for popular and vocational education.

Although the foregoing are the two main causes which have tended to mould national systems, yet the changes are, like all historical movements, closely connected with events and conditions in the preceding centuries. These may be called general historical causes, and naturally vary in different countries, but can only be briefly touched upon here.

In England, although the alienation of the Non-Conformists in the middle of the seventeenth, and the rapid growth of Methodism since the middle of the eighteenth century were the cause of hostile camps in the educational field, yet these movements compelled the nation to face the question whether compulsory State control was not more efficient than strife; they also helped to break up the idea that the Established Church had a monopoly of education. In England, again, the veneration of the past and the power of ancient privilege prevented sacrilegious hands

being laid upon royal or private endowments in secondary and university education. Yet those very conditions compelled the foundation of London University and newer Provincial Universities, which were forced to look to the State for a large share of their expenditure, and whose establishment led to State interference with ancient privileges. All reform in England has been exceedingly slow, a "broadening down from precedent to precedent," yet that very timidity, when once the nation has made up its mind, has usually been changed to a stern purpose carried out more rapidly than one would have expected.

In France and in Prussia we find two main historical causes for educational progress: (1) The reaction of sociological and scientific thought; (2) the reaction against feudalism. The middle of the eighteenth century saw the rapid spread of the study of political economy and of the theory of Naturalism. The work of Turgot, Adam Smith, Rousseau gave a new conception of the value of the "common man," a new theory of the relation between education and life, a wider bond between man and his brother. From Pestalozzi onwards, the sympathetic scientific study of the child has produced some names famous in psychology, whose arguments have led to a demand for equal opportunity in mental growth for all children of whatever creed, race or social standing. The successful revolt of the American colonies, their democratic constitution, the assistance given by France, all re-acted on France when the crash of the Revolution came.

The essential work of the French Revolution lies, not in the startling tragedies of the Reign of Terror nor in the Fall of the Bastille, but in the sweeping away of ancient feudal abuses, of class privileges, of unequal rights, of trade restrictions; henceforth by the "Declaration" all men are born free and equal, and therefore, as a corollary, have a right to the advantages of education. By a mere stroke of the pen, stumbling blocks to any national system of education in France were removed. So with Prussia:

the victories of Napoleon caused Frederick William to abolish the evils of serfdom, of feudal tenure, and of class privilege, and Prussia began that system of State education which has since been the model for many changes in other countries.

In the United States, the purchase of Louisiana in 1804 and the close of the long war between France and England in 1815 gave an impulse to rapid growth and power; the swift development of the Middle West and the equally important industrial expansion of the Commercial East, so extended her aims and resources that in the middle of the century Horace Mann was enabled to arouse the country to the need of free public elementary education. At the same time Loyalists from the American colonies saw the beginnings of a free educational system in Ontario founded by Dr. Ryerson.

Of all historical legacies, the hold that the Church has had upon education, as against undenominational control, has been most provocative of delay. Whether rightly or wrongly, it has been blamed for its opposition to scientific progress, its narrow sectarianism, its formal education, and its hostility to freedom of thought, also (with the exception of the Jesuits) for the inefficiency of its teachers. To the Reformation in Germany and Scotland we owe the foundation of their public systems, for their first consideration was the teaching of reading in the vernacular to all classes.

Another cause of progress has been the growth of urban population. Great cities are a special feature of the nineteenth century, and the absolute need of education for efficiency, for prevention of crime, for improvement of environment, has compelled large municipalities to devise ways and means for providing educational facilities. Their very efficiency has proved a force both towards, and away from State-control, for on the one hand the State was only too glad to leave the burden upon their shoulders, and on the other hand the successful handling of 20,000 or 50,000 children in a city has reacted in aims and methods through

State prescription in rural schools. The very conditions too of a mixed city population early compelled the recognition of one of two principles in religious training, either (as in Canada) distinctive right to Public and to Separate (Roman Catholic) schools, or (as in European countries and the United States) to a State undenominational school.

Two other historical inheritances should be added. In Canada the Fall of Quebec in 1759 added a Roman Catholic foreign population to the Empire, which by 1867 formed a minority of the total population of the newly-constituted Dominion, while remaining a majority in Quebec. The British Parliament safeguarded the rights of this minority in the British North America Act (1867), thus producing a cleavage in the school system which has been—especially in Quebec—an obstacle to educational growth.

In the United States, two centuries of slavery produced an aristocracy whose social aims reacted on secondary education and starved elementary. The emancipation of the negro after the Civil War altered these conditions and led to more extended State action, especially in elementary education.

In another direction we notice a change of attitude towards lawbreakers of all shades and ages, and particularly towards juvenile criminals. Before the nineteenth century punishment and not prevention was the chief object of the executive. Steadily the history of civilized countries records the growth of more humane measures, and the industrial school, or reformatory, is an accomplished fact; since this draws its attendance from a wide area, public opinion considers that it should be a State-maintained institution.

With such a number of forces and historical tendencies, it is fair to ask to what extent each country has held to some national aim or purpose. Taking England first, the situation can be shown best by the words of Sir J. Fitch: "Public provision for the education of the people in England is not the product of any theory or plan formulated

beforehand by statesmen or philosophers, it has come into existence through a long course of experiments, compromises, traditions, successes, failures and religious controversies," and, he adds: "It has been effected only to a small extent by legislation." These words were penned years ago, since which time the gradually increasing hold of the State on secondary education has developed some form of conscious purpose. In a circular of the Board of Education (1904) we read: "Grants will be given to schools offering a general education . . . the object of which is to develop all the faculties and to form the habit of exercising them." In a later report (1907) we find: "The influence of the State . . . will guard against the risks of one-sided education, of ill-balanced schemes of instruction, of premature or excessive specialization." The dictum of Matthew Arnold that England must re-organize her secondary schools, is being acted upon in the twentieth century.

In the United States, since there is no national system of education, there is no national policy, yet the general trend of educational administration shows a conscious purpose, formulated by Washington and Webster and insisted on by Horace Mann. This purpose is the expression of the average will, the American democracy, and may be defined as the attempt to educate itself for political liberty, to educate its heterogeneous nationalities to the standard of political intelligence, and, like other countries, to educate for efficiency in industrial competition. In a union of forty-nine States the ideal has been variously sought for, the resulting system depending on the social, religious, and political history of the separate States. Here, as in Canada, one cardinal principle marks out the system from others, and that is, the gospel of equal opportunity in education from the lowest to the highest rung in the ladder of knowledge.

The story of Germany is far different. Here we hear little of compromise, permission and experiment, much of

definite political action. The strength of Prussia's system in the nineteenth century lay in two facts: (1) she already had State control of the schools in the eighteenth century, when in other countries there was little public education; and (2) she had a definite aim or purpose, especially after the defeat at Jena. Paulsen states that before 1800 primary schools had been taken over from the Church by the State, compulsory attendance was already recognized as a public duty, thus implying an obligation on the community to contribute to schools, which were now political institutions, and adds (p. 147): "In Austria and Bavaria comprehensive reforms embracing primary work to the universities began about the middle of the eighteenth century, their principal object being to bring educational institutions everywhere under the control of the State, to secularize and modernize teaching, and to introduce instruction in scientific and historical knowledge." Germany had another weapon to hand. Accustomed to compulsory military service and to State discipline, it is not strange that she should be able to drive rather than coax her citizens towards some definite educational aim with more success than could ever be hoped for in freer and more democratic States. Nor was the aim unworthy of the means. While English-speaking countries have been content to suggest action or provide equipment, leaving it to local authorities and personal zeal to achieve results, or to make reforms in response to popular clamor and caprice, Germany has "steadily paid attention to the *quality* and not the *quantity* of education"—(Paulsen)—her aim being guided by the wisdom of experts who saw that self-activity and self-reliance were qualities more worth cultivating than the mere assimilation of facts. The best proof of the success of this aim is shown by the fact that since 1840 reforms in other countries have always been preceded by a careful inspection of Prussian schools, by visits and reports from experts and from commissions.

While France "presents the most complete type of a

State system of education organized under a strongly centralized administration in all grades"—(Ency. Brit.)—yet this does not connote such a definite State aim as one would infer. Rather may it be said that France has followed her political changes by varying educational purposes: thus we have the Revolution of 1789 and the reforms of Napoleon responsible for the right of the citizen to a public primary education; we have the influence of Rousseau bringing out the principle of educating man as *man* and not as a mere social animal; we have a more decided utilitarian basis in the first part of the century followed by clerical and classical reaction, in which the aim appears to be the training of the upper classes to support the monarchy. Previous to 1870 the chief aim seems to have been both social and utilitarian; the main feature of the system being the absence of the educational ladder, and the purpose of the State to prevent *déclassés* by arranging the curriculum and school grading so that the child was compelled to follow the trade or occupation of its parents, and thus prevent any democratic upheaval of social strata. But the humiliation of Sedan led France to reconstruct her education, on the assumption that Germany's success was due to her system of instruction. A real purpose and a national one is now apparent. It was "to fight industrial inefficiency, civic ignorance, and clerical interference and to create a nation of State-made efficient citizens" through the basis of free primary education and compulsory attendance. Realistic studies were at once dominant in the schools, yet the previous aim of fitting the citizen for the station in which he was born was not seriously departed from, and thus differentiates the French system from that of others. That the extension of this Realism into the secondary sphere did not agree with the opinions of those who thought that the spirit and genius of the French nation should be more humanistic is attested by the well-known work of Fouillée.

The position of affairs in Ontario is interesting, for it

represents the double attitude of considerable State grants administered by local authorities and of centralization of system responsible to parliamentary officers. The aim of the Province has been to provide every citizen with an education, limited only by his ability and his means. In this connection I cannot do better than quote from Dr. Ryerson's report (1846) as to the necessary features of the system: "The educational structure should be as broad as our whole population; that is, essential knowledge should be brought within the reach of the most needy, and forced upon the attention of the most careless: it should rise to the needs of the highest professions, one grade conducting to the other, and yet each complete in itself; the knowledge required for the scientific pursuits of mechanics, agriculture or commerce must needs be provided to an extent corresponding to the demand and exigencies of the country." Further on he expands as follows: "The first feature of our public system should be Universality, to the very poorest: the second, Practicality, for the very end of our being is practical; the third Religion and Morality (by which I do not mean sectarianism in any form, but the general system of truth and morals taught in the Holy Scriptures); the fourth, Physical education, for a system of instruction which makes no provision for exercises which contribute to health and bodily vigour must necessarily be imperfect." Such was Dr. Ryerson's educational ideal, and for this he laid foundations broad and deep for a structure which Ontario has been toiling at ever since with the hope of some day seeing the ideal realized.

A brief comparison of the foregoing aims and ideals will show that the actual working out of the purpose will lead to different forms of administration and to varying degrees of State control. Under an autocratic power, such as that in Prussia in 1810, we expect to find absolute centralization of direction under minute bureaucratic regulations. In France the new national purpose will sanction an excess of direct control. But in the English-speaking

countries, where personal liberty and freedom of opinion count for so much, the assumption by the State of authority and supervision is liable to provoke hostility and criticism, so that it might be instructive to consider next the evidence both for and against full national control of education.

Chapter II.

Objections to State control.

While the formation of a public compulsory State system of education is at present a generally accepted fact and meets with general acquiescence, the reform has not been effected without struggle and objection, more or less obstinate according to the temper of the people or the necessity of the changes. The obstacles to, and the arguments against, State control, although logically not always separable, may be briefly considered under such headings as: (1) the relation to personal liberty, including the reaction on national character; (2) the opposition of class interests and privileges; (3) the danger of an educated democracy; (4) interference with vested rights; (5) the question of religious instruction, or Church v. State; (6) education as controlled by political parties; (7) the danger of uniformity; (8) the attitude of trades unionism; (9) the limits of State control; (10) The question of expenditure.

(1) Where personal rights are concerned, it is natural to find more discussion in England (where both the spirit and the letter of the law was more respected than in other European countries in the first decades of the nineteenth century), coupled with more individual resistance, so that even in recent years we have seen the State confronted with "Passive Resistance" against educational control. The first measure of State-interference—Sir R. Peel's Factory Act, 1802—was petitioned against as being "injurious, impracticable and oppressive"; in other words, as interfering with the rights of the millowners, who by the then existing condition of child-slavery stood in *loco parentis*.

The general position of English policy had always been that intervention between parent and child was undesirable. But even earlier than the nineteenth century great authorities had advocated changes. Adam Smith recog-

nized the necessity of "public education in essentials at public expense." Blackstone in the very commencement of his famous Commentaries states that "the municipal laws of most countries seem to be defective by not *constraining* the parent to bestow a proper education upon his children." Jeremy Bentham, in the Principles of Penal Law, writes: "The less parents are able to discharge the duty, the more necessary is it for the Government to fulfil it." The policy, however, which proposed to curtail the liberty of the parent to do as he liked with his own children was strongly attacked by the older economists, who viewed with alarm the growth of State interference, probably fearing that, once started, such control would end in the assumption by the State of the practical care of the child with its corollary—compulsory parental neglect. The obvious answer lies in the words of Locke, "Liberty is not absence of restraint": that is, that the higher liberties should include and surpass the lower, as the liberty of the child to rise to a higher plane of environment or to the limit of his possibilities is higher than the liberty of the parent to constrain him to drop all education and go to work. In other words, the State legislates for a larger whole which includes and transcends the less. This was a standpoint diametrically opposed to the philosophical platform of the two men who in the last generation helped to determine very largely the political theories of parliamentarians—I mean Herbert Spencer and John Stuart Mill. To them the State was an aggregation of individuals, and therefore they clung to the theory that what was assumed by the State was lost o the individual. Whether they would have still held this contention if living amid the growing complexity of modern life in the twentieth century is doubtful. This very complexity, while in one way it simplifies the problem, because we recognize the interdependence of the State and its units, on the other hand it complicates it, for, as Sir J. F. Stephen has said: "The more civilized a society is, the greater care is necessary in guiding the force of control."

In the last quarter of the century two forces may be said to have assisted legislation in educational matters so far as regards the question of individual parental rights. The earlier parliaments contained men who were of the landed gentry or upper middle classes with a university education. Those intended for a political career, who were brought up on Liberal dogmas, were likely to be well acquainted with the philosophy of T. H. Green. His position on this point is substantially that the aim of the State should be to create a system of rights, instrumental to the highest life of the people. "Only such acts (or omissions) should be enforced by the State as it is better should take place from any motive whatever than not take place at all . . . for the higher life of the people, even with the risk of extended automatism." (Bosanquet, p. 194.) "Even if the object to be obtained is good," says Sir J. F. Stephen, "compulsion is bad if the object is attained at too great an expense."

Professor Ritchie practically sums up the whole question by conceding that the State in controlling education *is* interfering with individual liberty; but as a matter of history a settled State system and complete laws have *made* for individuality. The value of State action is just that it *is* more powerful than local opinion or custom. Left to the latter, the individual has a tendency to sink to the surrounding level, to refuse to attempt reform, or even to oppose all reforming influences. The State can therefore override local customs or prejudice in the interests of the larger community. Parental rights cannot become State wrongs; that is, State interference is justified where the liberty which is repressed gives a wider liberty in the interests of the nation.

This was exactly the attitude of the group of politicians in the last parliaments of the century, forming a second force towards compulsion. The larger proportion of factory owners, mine owners, leaders of industrial enterprises, etc., now forming part of the representative body saw that

industrial expansion and efficient competition could only be achieved by further curtailment of liberty, hence stricter compulsory attendance, stricter child-labor clauses, extension of school age, etc., for the advantage of the State as a whole. Spencer had long before declared this an "aggression upon the rights of the parent." So it was; but the results are worth the means, for ignorance is an evil at the very base of all society, which society for its own sake, under a higher law, is bound to eradicate. Besides, it will be an aggression upon only these parents who are least able to judge of the value of an education and are therefore the foremost in opposing coercion.

In the United States, local liberty of action has been so long the rule, while at the same time the democratic basis (which contained the right and the possibility of a boy rising from canal-boy to President) was so firmly established in a general desire of parents to see their children educated that the question of State interference has hardly arisen as a whole. Bureaucratic tendencies have been checked by the election of local officials by popular vote for limited terms.

Yet State control has steadily advanced in elementary education. On this point a recent writer states: "The whole question is in a state of flux and the changes are so near us that there has not been time to estimate the full consequences." The fact is, that the average parent sends his children to school moved more by social custom than by any serious consideration of the aims sought, the means by which these are attained, or the administration of the educational system. Were it not for the fact that his purse is involved, it is doubtful if he would ever bestow much thought on the subject or much care in selecting his representative on local education boards. However carelessly treated, the acts of contribution and election give him *ipso facto* some interest in the school, and there is danger that State subventions and absolute centralized control will remove even this interest, weak as it usually is. So the

same writer suggests: "If once parents fail to take interest in the school and such inertia becomes common, it might be a worse weakness than local control."

In France and Germany the question hardly arises. Compulsory military training and a multitude of compulsory police regulations being a matter of common social life, interference with individual rights would occasion no such discussion as in England or the United States. That France, however, was not always complaisant is shown by the report of 500 Inspectors to Guizot in 1833: "Towns and rural districts are a unit in their opposition to a State system of primary schools."

In Ontario, as in the United States, there was a desire for facilities for education, while the State at first left almost entire control in the hands of localities: as centralization increased, changes were made through regular parliamentary channels, after discussion, and were thus adopted as necessary to the higher needs of the Province; an interesting report of the early '60's, when Dr. Ryerson submitted the question of compulsory education to the County Conventions, shows 27 in favor and only two motions against the suggestion, as being "unconstitutional and subversive of the rights of the subject."

Closely allied to this, and forming part of the same idea is the objection that compulsory State action tends to weaken the independence and moral fibre of both parents and children, and to weaken initiative, since the burden has been shifted from parental shoulders. On this ground J. S. Mill says: "State *action* is necessary and inevitable, but care must be taken to guard against State *control*." Dr. Dutton says regarding the free school book question in the United States: "It is claimed that it leads to parents and children looking to the State for help, and to a weakening in habits in the care of private property." Sir Philip Magnus, in "Educational Aims," considers that "reverence for parents, submission to control, desire for self-improvement and belief in personal effort" are in many

cases thought to have been weakened where dependence on the law of the State and the authority of the police officer have taken the place of parental compulsion. The Newcastle Commission of 1860 rejected free compulsory education "because of the effect upon individual initiative." As late as 1908 the English Board of Education, in a circular, remarks: "The increased aid now given to secondary schools carries, like all other Imperial subventions, this danger with it, that it may tend to suggest a corresponding diminution of local responsibility and local support."

(2) The lines delimiting social ranks have always barred general national reforms, and have impeded the success of a State system. "Social distinctions in education are almost always conservative," says one writer, "and tend to check new measures." In England, interference with the great public schools and with the universities has come *after* the foundation of a public system, while a measure of control of secondary schools which were mainly semi-private is a matter of the twentieth century. Naturally the upper classes in older States have been quick to resent any possibility of an invasion of their monopoly from below—a question which has not troubled the American continent. Again, for centuries the education which spelt power was a luxury for the rich and was claimed as a prerogative to be denied to the poor. Such ideas die hard, for, as the same writer says, "Traditions held by any class in society are the strongest barrier to educational progress." In Germany the aristocracy possessed, for many historical reasons, a greater dominance than in France or England, but it was so shattered by the Napoleonic wars and the call for patriotic reconstruction was so obvious and general, that the upper classes joined in the efforts of Stein and Humboldt in founding and improving popular education in the first decades of the nineteenth century. Although there was an anti-Socialistic tendency from 1840 to 1870, since then the uplift of all and not the best education for a social caste has been, on

the whole, aimed at. It was the sweeping away, in theory at least, of all social distinctions which started France on her career of popular education.

Closely allied to actual cleavages of society as affecting education is the opposition of a professional caste imbued with its ancient traditions. In the German and English universities determined opposition was frequently offered to the efforts of the State to modernize the curriculum, while there are frequent passages in contemporary educational journals which would suggest that such hindrance is not unknown in America.

(3) A third objection frequently urged against State control is that while an educated democracy is better than an ignorant one, still, beyond a necessary minimum, education of the masses is the cause of socialistic disturbances, and hence should not be so freely and easily offered by the State. In England it was many years before the spectacle of the French Terror faded from men's minds, hence among the upper classes all steps towards popular education, except where the very poorest needed a necessary minimum, were steadily opposed on the ground that the result would be a political and social upheaval. In Germany, Prof. Paulsen remarks, "Of late years the rapid rise of social democracy has inspired many with the fear that too much education threatens to upset the foundations of government." In the middle decades of the century imperial rescripts were issued to check what seemed to be too much freedom of thought for the unity of the State. In France, Guizot's measures were opposed by the upper social classes as tending to create men of too republican a spirit. Even in modern times the danger of having too many "professionelles" with nothing to do but to probably foster social disturbance leads an acute observer to remark: "Throughout the organization of primary education the French have kept steadily in view the danger of creating an intellectual prolétariat." In the United States and Canada the absence of any class distinctions in the European sense

has, together with the "ladder of opportunity," not led to any serious consideration of social dangers from popular education.

(4) It is in England again that we see the greatest opposition to State control from "vested rights." The State, through royal munificence, and the Church—an institution aristocratic in its affiliations—through charitable individuals had endowed a large number of charity schools, Great Public Schools (Eton, Harrow, Winchester, etc.) and grammar schools. These were naturally controlled by elected trustees of the endowment, and to the conservative temper of the Englishman any interference seemed like sacrilege. Reform did come, though late; in 1853 a Charity Commission framed plans for better administration; from 1868—1889 Acts were passed improving the Great Public Schools, and the Grammar Schools (schools like the High Schools of Canada and the United States, but usually having a number of boarders as a source of profit to the head master), while by Orders-in-Council since 1899 the powers of the Charity Commission have been transferred to the Board of Education for England. It was the steady opposition of vested interests in these secondary schools which delayed the welding of all grades of education into one system. As early as 1868 Messrs. Bryce, Arnold and Fitch—all household names in education—brought in a report stating that these endowments were a stumbling block to newer measures and progress, besides being very wasteful, and condemned their inelastic curriculum, inefficient control, and freehold tenure by the head masters. The State's answer was the Endowed Schools Act of 1874, which secularized all schools which could not expressly prove that they were founded to support Church of England or other religious teaching.

In France we have a compromise, the private schools retaining their vested rights, but being allowed by State authority and subject to State inspection as to equipment, etc. In Germany and in America foundations usually for

higher technical work or for higher professional training have frequently passed into municipal or State control, although in the United States "No State has ever yet interfered with private schools." In Ontario the foundation of private schools of any importance is practically a matter of the past twenty-five years, and as an excellent public secondary school system already existed, the natural effect of competition keeps these up to the mark. Upper Canada College and the Military College at Kingston are, however, State-endowed schools.

(5) The religious control of education was a legacy from the past and owed its strength to its long régime, to its immense investments, to its record of self-sacrifice and to its appeal to the deeper elements of character. The university was the training school for the clergy, who, in turn, being, as a rule, the best educated class, became the teachers of the day, or if not the teachers, were until quite recently the patrons and inspectors of the schools. The Renaissance established schools of the people for the vernacular in Lutheran Germany, and in Presbyterian Scotland; the Jesuit schools long dominated Central Europe; the brotherhoods or religious orders clung to their part in French education. In Canada and the United States colleges for the training of ministers of all denominations were among the earliest foundations. Is it any marvel that more opposition has come from this source than from all other obstacles to State control? And yet foot by foot the Church has had to give way, and non-sectarian education is to-day the rule in all countries and stands as one of the principal features of the nineteenth century.

As I have given in Part II. some details of the actual treatment of religious teaching, and as the subject would, historically, lead almost to a book in itself, I will only touch upon it generally. Roughly speaking, it may be said that up to the middle of the century any separation of religious and secular training would hardly have been

listened to; during the last half of the century the principle was partly conceded, but war ensued on the exact amount of moral instruction which should be retained in the schools, although, on the other hand, non-sectarian teaching had been generally agreed upon. The struggle has been complicated by the rivalry of denominational bodies who brought all their forces to bear on rejecting some measures of reform because they might unduly increase the importance and advantages of other bodies. In England the State was, therefore, at first compelled to assist education in some non-committal way, such as grants to buildings, or "payment by results," which would not trench on religious questions. As early as 1839 Mr. Gladstone said in Parliament: "It remains to be shown why it is not the duty of the State to establish a system under which all religions should be equally entitled to support." In 1870 the first great portion of such a system was established in his first Prime Ministership. In 1861 the Newcastle Commission rejected a State system because of religious difficulties. Concerning the important Act of 1902 we read: "The difficulty inherent in such a measure was the admitted difficulty of securing public control as a necessary concomitant of public maintenance, without jeopardizing or destroying the special religious character of the voluntary schools." The latter were conceded four out of the six managers who were to be appointed "according to the trust deed of the building and the religious principles taught in the past." Yet determined resistance to the payment of school taxes to these "Godless schools," as they were termed, compelled the Government to pass a Default Act in 1904 against these "Passive Resisters" and to uphold the State's authority. The regulations for Training Colleges (1907) expressly state that there were to be no religious restrictions upon students or professors or governing body (1908), the latter referring to the new Secondary Training Schools. [Reference to the question of inspection of religious subjects or to qualifications of teachers will be dealt with in Part II.]

It was chiefly, however, in the universities that religious impediments to the march of education were found. London University and other denominational colleges had been founded, but Oxford and Cambridge barred all creeds but the Anglican and required subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles for a degree. Cambridge removed the first restriction as early as 1856, and popular feeling and a sense of justice induced Mr. Gladstone to pass an Act in 1871 removing all religious tests.

In Germany the local minister was at first the inspector and director of primary education, but as the century advanced the position of the Church as a force in civilization was everywhere receding and was no longer the dominating force in social life. More and more the teachers became the servants of the State and, as such, could be of any creed; also, as the economic and progressive policy of Bismarck developed, in an autocratic State like Prussia, any obstacle to the efficient working out of his national aims was sure to be removed. Any compulsory State system, to be effective, must be neutral as to dogmatic beliefs, for on the one hand it touches the independence of the religious conviction of the teacher, and on the other the liberty of conscience of the parent and of the child. One of the best guarantees of effective moral instruction by the teacher lies in his own character as displayed day after day to his pupils, while one of the most effective sureties for a united State is not in separate schools for every dogma, but in the intermingling of pupils of all creeds for purposes of instruction or during play hours. Hence there are no "conscience clauses" in Germany, but the basic features of common Christianity are taught in periods devoted to religious instruction.

In France the Church has also fallen back before the secular forces. Voltaire attacked the hierarchy with merciless satire, and the early years of the Revolution saw the clergy checked in every way. But the reaction came, and Napoleon in organizing his school system chose as watch-

words "Loyalty to the Church and the Emperor." In 1821 and for the next six years the Jesuits were in control, but the reforms of Guizot in [illegible] recognized "Liberty of Teaching" because he found his main obstacle was the Church, which saw the control of education slipping away from her, but her schools were so superior to those of the State that from 1840 to 1863 a reaction set in in their favor. The reforms of Duruy in 1863 were nullified by the Franco-Prussian war and by the subsequent disturbances. But in 1880 Ferry established the modern system: all unauthorized teaching orders were forcibly dissolved, all religious instruction was abolished, and the State-trained and guaranteed teacher placed in charge, and the whole control centralized under State officials. The most recent movement against all Catholic religious orders has had the effect of closing up the last strongholds of the Church, namely, the secondary private schools and the convent schools. This will have a far-reaching effect upon the education of girls, and hence upon the nation, for these will have to attend either the secularized State schools or Catholic schools taught by laymen.

In the United States, although in the colonial era there were many religious animosities, when after 1840 the question of free compulsory education was being discussed and adopted, the influence of the Scotch and the Prussian systems seems to have eliminated any consideration of Church against People or State, for little or no reference is made to religious belief being a serious obstacle to national education.

In Ontario previous to 1850 there was a prolonged struggle between the Anglicans, led by John Strachan, who held at that time the principal control of parliamentary institutions, and declared that higher education should be dominated by the Anglican Church, and a growing body of Dissenters and Reformers, whose principal champion was Dr. Ryerson, and who argued that they had a right to their share [illegible] State grants. Particulars of the quarrel need

not be given here; they may be found in the biographies of these two leaders, but the net results were that by 1853 Ontario possessed a non-sectarian State-controlled system of elementary education; an undenominational university (Toronto) had been founded, while each church sustained by voluntary effort a college of its own; besides this, in both primary and secondary education the teachers and the pupils were freed from all religious restrictions. The fact that separate schools under State inspection were allowed and that Sunday schools grew rapidly did much to prevent any serious objections to the State system as far as its limitations in religious teaching were concerned.

(6) Another objection urged against State control is that its very character must needs demand either (a) centralized bureaucratic control with little or no responsibility to the people, or (b) representative political control with a responsible head in the executive council of the State, and therefore in part subject to the usual evils of legislation, in part subject to objection from the very nature of education.

In England the contingency was met by a kind of compromise and by a quiet system of indirect legislation through a sub-committee or through Orders-in-Council which were not subjected to parliamentary vote. But as national ferment and State subsidies increased, educational policy was discussed and voted on in the House until to-day we have a Cabinet Representative of Education who at times bulks largely in the public press and in debate. In details, however, the Englishman is contented with asking a question or two when some new regulation has caused agitation and then leaving the administration of the whole department to the common-sense of the officials.

In this connection the arguments used by Dr. Ryerson when recommending the appointment of a Minister of Education to the Cabinet of Ontario are well worth considering. They may be briefly summarized as follows: The operations of the Education Department so pervade all

municipalities that these ought to be a matter of public political consideration, especially since the duty of paying the taxes includes the right to be heard on expenditure. The man who originates or works out educational measures should have a responsible position in Parliament, for this is better than being compelled to have an M.P. outside the Department do so. The danger of forcing unpopular measures is prevented. On the other hand, the strength of politics, which lies in a large working majority, is its very weakness. Education cannot be measured in results by dollars and cents of expenditure, hence a party with a large majority can pass measures obnoxious to a professional minority who understand the evils but are politically helpless. Again, a suitable educational measure may stir up political or religious animosity which the party in power are afraid of. A good deal depends on the qualities of the Minister; he might be a good politician and a poor educationist, or vice versa; if a really good man, in four years or less he is liable to have to resign on account of political defeat on some subject unconnected with education, while at all times the danger exists of political pull or of patronage in educational appointments. The growing grants of the State make it likely that educational policy will become a bigger factor in ousting political rivals. That this has not been the case to a greater extent than it has been is largely due to a growing feeling that the education of children should not be a political matter, that it should not be too much interfered with, and that sufficient interest in the question on the part of the ordinary voter could not be aroused to make or unmake majorities. Sir G. W. Ross, after a long experience both as parliamentarian and as Minister of Education, says: "No hard and fast rule can be laid down as to the relative value of government by a responsible minister and government by a bureaucracy." The danger in the latter lies in the change of direction by a mere body of civil service clerks, in the former to government by political opportunists rather than by skilled edu-

cationists. Germany has met the danger by a committee of experts to frame all curricula, etc.; England by a consultative committee of similar qualifications; France employs distinguished educationists in her Council of Public Instruction; Ontario has created an Advisory Council, at present of little importance; the State Boards of Education in America are becoming increasingly professional. The crux of the situation lies in the progressive spirit of these bodies, and in the amount of attention paid to their recommendations by the central authority. Dr. Dutton remarks: "Once created, representative bodies are hard to get rid of, and there is danger that bureaucratic bodies may become unprogressive, and in some cases defy the power of public opinion when demanding their reconstruction or resignation."

(7) Another valid objection to state control appears to be its tendency to set up mechanical routine, uniformity of results, and rigidity of system. Social and rational results cannot be tabulated and averaged like commercial activities, nevertheless "system" is magnified, with the result that the personality and initiative of the teacher are cramped, the potentialities of the child are disregarded, and where the curriculum is unprogressive his faculties have not all been expanded. The uniformity which results from centralized bureaucratic administration takes thought only for the average intellect, and there is danger of adequate provision not being made for those who can do more, and for those who do less than the average scholar. Officialdom cannot be expected to understand the spirit as well as the letter of education. Hence loss and discouragement is involved in a too carefully systematized scheme of control. Included in this criticism is the condition which arises from adherence to State examinations, whether compulsory or not. Even when not so in form, they become so in essence, since promotion depends on a successful attempt, and too often the public estimate of a teacher's ability is based on his suc-

cess in putting his pupils through government examinations in record time. On this ground Matthew Arnold strongly condemned the "Payment by Results" system because it substituted a mechanical measure in estimating the intellectual results of school work. Germany has been compelled to meet the needs of modern complex life by creating several types of schools with equal advantages along different lines; France and England have had to follow her example by creating higher elementary schools with a decided utilitarian basis for the same reason. Paulsen complains of the too rigid and too detailed courses, and of interference with the freedom of the teacher, while prescribed examinations have led to a great deal of formal cramming. Recent educational articles show that both in Germany and in France more latitude is being given to the teacher, while in all countries the introduction of the manual arts is tending to break down uniformity. In France the latest regulations (1910) give more freedom of organization to the directors and professors in the higher schools. In Ontario there is a growing feeling that a rigid system has too long been adapted solely to those who looked to a professional career, while the remarkable disparity in English-speaking lands between the number of pupils who enter the primary classes and those who succeed in reaching the higher standards has led to a discussion of this professional uniformity. That the subject, however, has another side will be considered in another chapter. [Chap. III.]

(8) Little need be said about the other arguments against State control. In the measures taken for technical training, owing to the decay of the old apprenticeship system, the attitude of the trades unions has had to be considered. In England they have come to look with favor on the trade schools; in France, though at first hostile from the fear of a select class being formed which would militate against them, active opposition has ceased; in Germany, "the German is naturally amenable to regu-

lation, and his education in civics in the elementary schools predisposes him to consider questions of economic import with more skill than one usually finds"; in the United States resolutions of labor federations have been passed in line with more progressive conditions, but the general feeling is that trades cannot effectually be taught except in the workshop.

Another question that arises is that of the *limits* of State action both as to regulation and as to expenditure. In the former case State legislation is generally in danger of overthrowing previous conditions too rapidly or of expecting results too soon. Whatever may be said of other reformatory measures, in education this mistake is productive of grave consequences. Education is a growth, and no legislation can produce the flower without allowing in its measures for the seed, roots and plant in due order, and any attempt at forcing these—to complete the parallel—would only produce a hothouse growth ill-calculated to stand the blasts of industrial and mercantile rivalry or the complexity of modern life. What has been said about the relation of the State to the control of personal freedom applies to this section also.

To what extent is the State justified in spending rapidly-increasing amounts of public money on education? Where there is bureaucratic control, the natural answer is that the nation must be satisfied that the aim is a public one, and that the expense is justified by the results expected in the future for the welfare of the nation. In countries with responsible government the expenditure must be publicly acquiesced in, and be so distributed that no one class benefits at the expense of the other. The proportion to be spent on primary and on higher education is a more difficult question, and can only be answered when one is satisfied with one or other of the present conflicting sociological theories, namely, whether the general uplift of the masses or the highest education of those with genius tends best to the progress of the nation. Finally,

whatever form of State Control exists, the limit will depend upon the wealth of the community, the general opinion being that it is best for private philanthropy to lend aid or for local groups to tax themselves as highly as possible and for the State to supplement deficiencies and to provide general facilities, while at the same time preventing as much waste as possible.

Chapter III.

Arguments in favor of State control.

The fact that State control has had a steady and at times a rapid progress and that it is an accepted principle in education among civilized nations is sufficient to prove that, in spite of obstacles and objections, its advantages are greater than its disadvantages. It will be well, therefore, to consider next some of its chief merits, and in a subsequent chapter some of the principal educational tendencies resulting from it.

Forty years ago local communities were essentially narrow-minded, unsocial and unprogressive and although rapid transit and communication are swiftly eliminating the obstacles of prejudice, ignorance, and self-sufficiency, still some external force is needed to keep outlying districts in line with the progress of the age and to keep the whole body in onward motion. Those who assume that national educational unity is a thing to be desired can point to one advantage the State possesses, namely, the power of negative influence upon education. "By eliminating such factors as sectional prejudice, sectarian narrowness, or local poverty, the system prevents the inevitable waste from such incoordinate elements (Sutton)." The earliest State interference, both in England, and in the United States (through the influence of Horace Mann), was compulsory provision of better buildings and better internal equipment. Through State interference the individual is raised to a higher level partly because more stringent regulations contrast with the changes produced by local politics, influence, or quarrels. "The value of State action is just that it is more powerful (because more concentrated) than local opinion or custom. Left to the latter, the individual has a tendency to sink to the surrounding level, to refuse to adopt reform or to combat all reforming influences. This

condition is by no means uncommon when dealing with educational problems, especially where a very large share of l initiative and support has to be depended upon (B).'' Thus, speaking of the contrast in the case of compulsory attendance, Craik observes that there is a striking contrast between the working of the English system through by-laws passed by local influence and the less wasteful and speedier system in Scotland of direct legislation. As education becomes more professional and specialized there is a growing sentiment that such things as the authorization of textbooks, or the details of a curriculum, are better left to outsiders——to a non-partisan jury as it were—than to the local authorities.

In France we find similar conditions with similar remedies. When Guizot attempted his reforms in primary education they were resisted by the whole body of local communities (probably largely through clerical dictation), hence he appointed a large number of sub-inspectors in each department on account of "the unprogressive and unintelligent actions of the communal committees." Describing the district system after the Civil War (which, by the way, has since 1897 been abolished in 24 States), President Thwing remarks: "It was expensive, it excessively increased the number of school officers, it was the occasion of injustice in taxation for educational purposes. It prevented the formation and growth of a consistent policy in education" (p. 30). On the same topic President Butler says: "The school district system has lacked system, continuity and progressiveness." That similar conditions could be met with in England is shown by a clause in the first great Act of 1870 in which provision is made for dissolving dilatory school boards and appointing other members. Local conditions injurious to an effective system may fairly be placed, therefore, as among the first reasons for State interference, and their removal as one of its principal benefits.

Where considerable administration has been left to local authorities selected by popular election there is dar of

local politics and personal wire-pulling affecting the efficiency of the schools. Of the countries which thus delegate educational power—England, the United States, Canada—in the first and last mentioned the absence of criticisms on this point in educational works or current journals may be taken as a fair inference that dangers from this source are slight. In the United States, where, it is well known, politics pervade every public movement, it is not surprising to find reference to the intrusion of party spirit even in local educational contests, and charges of favoritism arising therefrom. Thus Ware says: "The State superintendent may be regarded as a great bulwark against the encroachments of political interests on the domain of national education." This evil has at times been deep-seated in large municipalities where conditions have been notoriously corrupt, and has been especially accentuated where towns of moderate size have rapidly outgrown the older civic administration and where rapid increase in attendance needs greater consideration. It is here that the State through a non-partisan superintendent and through unprejudiced inspection can nullify the force of appointment by favoritism or graft in supplying accommodation. "As the problem (of these economic changes) grows, the question has arisen as to how far the separate municipal control of the past shall give place to increasing State control" (Dutton); further on he adds: "Recent charter changes in the States have shown that where honest and efficient corporations can be appointed, school conditions are greatly improved."

"The greatest claim made for State control, and one which, if conceded, is sufficient to justify its existence, is that it can claim to produce a more efficient and economical system than mere personal initiative, that it prevents waste both of money and of effort and therefore promotes one of the aims of education. The history of progress is the record of a gradual diminution of waste, and the State is the chief instrument by which waste is prevented. "In many cases by freeing the individual from the necessity of a perpetual

struggle for the mere necessities of life it can set free individuality and make culture possible. (Ritchie, p. 50). The increasing study of sociological problems has raised the question of education from one of mere provision of facilities for an intellectual minimum to a question of its whole relation to the individual, to the social structure, and to the aims of the nation, hence education is receiving a larger share of attention from students of political questions. A quotation from Dr. O'Shea aptly illustrates the point: "The supreme problem in social education is so to train each oncoming generation that the nation may continue to grow in strength, stability and efficiency. The real function of education is so to equip the new members of the social organism with ideas and with modes of conduct that they may be able to discern the requirements for continued prosperity and that they may have such control over their actions that they can adapt themselves to the needs of any situation." (Ch. X.X, p. 229.)

Since the majority of citizens are either connected with agriculture or with manufacturing industries, the province of the State in education has of late years been extended largely in the direction of trying to cope with the evils of waste and inefficiency among workers. As Dr. Carleton says: "The emphasis has shifted from the leisure class ideal of education for culture and discipline to the industrial, utilitarian and democratic ideal of education as a means of improving civic and industrial efficiency," for education should impart "power to do and ability to accomplish." The increasing number of members representing labor parties and interests in the parliaments of free States is a guarantee that State control in this direction will be largely augmented. Hence a recent writer avers: "It is the State's business to educate the public conscience so that effective work may be accomplished by an ever-increasing army of skilled workers." (Dean, p. 128.) This has been one of the chief reasons for substituting State control for Church control in education, for the latter could hardly be expected to be in sympathy with wide national industrial

aims, being satisfied with imparting sufficient knowledge to form docile Christians, nor had it the resources to accomplish the wider aim, even if it had posessed the desire to do so.

That State systems have realized this point of view the whole of Part II. of this thesis goes to prove. It is said of Bismarck's policy: "Efficiency in education was to be the watchword," and the position of Germany at the opening of the twentieth century shows that the nation nobly responded to far-sighted reforms in all branches of education. To give another instance. The Voluntary Schools Act 1897 (England) expressly states: "Grants up to five shillings per head shall be given to necessitous schools for the purpose of increasing their efficiency." In Ontario there is a "Poor Schools Grant," whereby any section that is unable to support an efficient school is aided by the Provincial Government out of public funds.

When the State looked for the worst evil of voluntary systems and when it cast about for the best means of promoting efficiency, it found that progress could best be effected by improving the status of the teacher. It is a truism that one may supply building, textbooks, apparatus, but that without the living force of an enthusiastic, intellectual, and professionally trained teacher with a love of his work and sympathy for his pupils the results will be incommensurate with time or expense. "To-day in England (says an authority) the State and the Provincial Councils are laboring at organization, methods, and the creation of a highly trained class of teachers." (De Montmorency, p. 89.) (See Part II., Chap. III.) A comparison of the details of the courses of 1912 and 1902 bear out this contention. So in other countries, speaking generally of the nineteenth century, one may say that the State has recognized that its primary duty is to prevent the appointment of useless or untrained men and women in the schools, and as a first duty correlative with that duty, to supply or assist training colleges, normal schools and pedagogical courses combined with sufficient observation and practice-

teaching to prevent glaring errors and to eliminate as far as possible that wasteful experimentation, that system of trial and error which was a main feature in the early decades of the century, and which still exists to a large extent in private or non-State institutions.

As might be expected, Germany has taken the lead in providing a strenuous apprenticeship for the future teacher which eliminates the unfit, but at the same time she has offered more inducements to the qualified teacher by assuring him of steady employment, a fixed and progressive income, a status as a civil servant in the community, and the prospect of provision for old age or after incapacitation. Her example has been followed in primary work by tentative schemes of superannuation in England and Canada; in the latter case the experiment has been somewhat of a failure; in the former, the changes have been so recent that results cannot be practically considered. It is noteworthy, in view of the long struggle over sectarianism in England, that the latest regulations remove all hindrance to intending teachers in training on the score of social standing or religious convictions.

In America we find "In almost every State the Legislature has passed Acts dealing with . . . the status and remuneration of teachers." While one of the chief effects of State control has been the formation of a body of trained professional teachers, recognized and respected by the public at large, generally permanent, and from their advanced training co-operating with all local and social schemes for the uplift of the community."

In France the professors in the Lycées, the normal schools and in higher technical institutions are directly appointed and paid by the State after undergoing a rigid and extended course of training.

Another advantage of central control is that it is possible to co-ordinate and correlate the separate units providing education in such a way as to prevent waste of energy, to prescribe what is at the present considered the best in method, subject or apparatus, and to so reorganize the

work of the varying types of schools that if necessary an educational ladder may be easy of access, while at the same time each school course may be more or less complete in itself. This was the principle of Dr. Ryerson's scheme for Ontario and is held as a logical principle of statecraft by writers such as Bagehot, Fouillée and Ritchie, namely, that inasmuch as society is a political organism, co-ordinated control is not only better for the whole organism, but also for its units. In the preamble of the English Act of 1902 this purpose is expressly stated, "to co-ordinate all forms of education." This Act linked up for the first time in England primary and secondary education, and its effect is this expressed by De Montmorency (p. 24): "The standard of secular teaching imposed by the Board of Education by virtue of their bearing the cost is thus secured in every school." It seems probable that the State having once interfered successfully with higher schools will continue its operation until a completely centralized system is secured, for it is certainly a waste of effort to have a number of different bodies with different aims and standards, when a larger one can control the whole situation.

Connected with this subject is the change that has taken place in the general attitude of the public on the question of the individual's right to opportunity for the fullest development. In the older countries the jealousy of social classes, the hostility of the established church, the fear of undue education for the masses, the doctrine that a man should be content in his station of life, and the cost of higher education, all tended to prevent those in the lower schools from advancing to the higher. In England the difference in the curricula and the absence of entrance tests had somewhat the same effect. In Ontario, a system of State-controlled "leaving" examination provides a ladder from the lowest to the highest. In Prussia, however, the Volkschulen do not lead to the Realschulen or Gymnasieu, but are continued in Fortbildingschulen providing an advanced course for half-time or in the evenings. In the

United States no limit is placed on age, sex or social status in the republic of knowledge. In France alone we see definite arrangements by the authorities to prevent the rise of the working to the professional clas or what has been termed to a "professional prolétariat." In England almost the latest phase of State control is shown by the regulations of 1907 re Secondary Schools. "In all fee-charging Secondary Schools 25 per cent. of free places must be open to public elementary pupils between 10 and 12, subject, if necessary, to an entrance examination."

The opposite aims of two republics where freedom and the rights of man appear in the constitution may be well compared in the following quotations: "The predominant aim of the (French) State appears to have been the checking of democratic tendencies towards social equality, hence there is no fixed system or correlation." (Ency. Brit., 11th edn.) On the othrr hand, describing the system in the United States, Dr. Brown writes: "We see a national system, the product of national ideals, in the increasing freedom by which a practical ladder for brains and genius is open to the humblest pupils towards the greatest heights." Of course it is a fact of history that genius has always forged to the front, and that superior talent has frequently been assisted by interested patrons in all ages; then, too, innumerable scholarships have been founded, but these as a rule have been only accessible to pupils in secondary or private schools. The educational "ladder" in a State system is another proof of the principle that where national interests are concerned the State by corporate political action can work more efficiently than private enterprise.

Behind the increasing demand for an educational ladder is a principle deeper and not consciously put forward, and that is the doctrine of Natural Rights. This is not the place to discuss the effect of the writings of Rousseau, but that it was far-reaching is attested by Lord Morley, who says that, "to strike the balance fully, would be to write

the whole history of the French Revolution." Acting on the preamble in the Declaration of the Rights of Man (ignorance, neglect or contempt of the rights of man are the sole cause of public calamities) and Article 2 (the aim of all political association is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man), the French Assembly laid down the principle that public elementary education was one of the political rights of man, and projected a scheme of State-controlled education free from clerical dictation, a scheme which subsequent events delayed for a considerable period. Discussion of Rousseau's work (Emile) and his principles has been widespread in all civilized countries, while the increasing modern feeling that the State exists for the individual, although somewhat misleading, lends strength to the opinion that a child has a natural right to demand the opportunity of an education from the State.

By acting on some such principle the State as an educator has been able to adjust the citizen to his environment and even in many cases to lift him above his environment. Generations ago, when most men stayed where they were born, followed their father's footsteps, when industrial skill was largely "rule of thumb," and when trade was localized, sufficient education for complete adaptation to environment was generally locally procurable. But modern conditions demand more: skill and efficiency, a knowledge of principles, some aesthetic interest, are not beyond the grasp of the toiler, who because of the very monotony of modern factory methods needs them even more than his predecessors. Step by step with educational reforms and sometimes preceding them are laws restricting child-labor in civilized countries, and also provision for dealing with the pervert, the defective, the homeless.

In political theory the principle that the power which inflicts punishment should also have the right to remove the conditions by prevention (in both cases using public money for the good of the whole) is now generally recog-

nized, and as a consequence the treatment of the juvenile delinquent is vastly different from that of half a century ago, and is mainly on educational lines. The earliest measure in education in England was an attempt to oppose the ignorance and immorality of the factory pauper children. Bentham, whose writing had great influence in the first part of the century, inveighs against social evils due to ignorance of the masses, and declares it is the State's duty to remove these. "It is the true function of education and social science to see that every man has the environment and opportunities that will enable him to fulfil his potential capacities and the purpose of his being. To achieve that is the ultimate purpose that gives an ethical meaning to organized society." (De Montmorency, p. 136.) The standpoint of labor to-day is provincial, continental or even world-embracing, and something of this spirit must infuse itself into even the remotest rural school. Local conditions tend to perpetuate themselves; an extraneous force with a wider outlook can raise these, hence the aim of the State ought to be to differentiate the individual—while leaving a large share of personal initiative—in and from his social environment by affording the fullest expansion of his potentialities for the good of society. That the State does override local conditions and environment is abundantly evident in recent legislation dealing with the relationship between employer and employee, companies and individuals; that it should do so effectively between parent and child, trustee and pupil in educational environment appears to be both legally and ethically right. That the State does so recognize its duty, a perusal of recent circulars and instructions will amply prove. One of 1893 (France) states: "These schools (Cours Complémentaires) are intended to fit for life"; another in 1908 (London): "The object of these courses is to develop all the faculties and train for efficient living." "In the nineteenth century, the State (Germany) was actually transformed into an institution devoted to the advancement of universal culture . . . dominated by the idea that it ought to provide all members with the

necessary facilities for their intellectual training." Hence Paulsen concludes that schools for the actual needs of modern life will be the State aim of the twentieth century.

Speaking generally, what the State has already accomplished in this direction may be divided into three stages. At first by compelling proper buildings, bright and clean, with good sanitation, spacious playgrounds, etc., it placed the child in an environment generally better than that of its home surroundings, and these might be reasonably expected to react on the child's future life.

Next, assistance was given to local efforts in providing public libraries and evening classes. Third, continuation schools and complementary classes have been added for those who have completed the primary work, but who do not intend, or who are unable to enter the higher schools. We are now entering upon the fourth stage, that of providing for the great army of adolescents who have left school and who do not intend to pursue ordinary studies further, but who are not as efficient workers and will not become as efficient citizens as they would be if compelled to pursue vocational and cultural courses. The influence of the home, especially its educational influence, has been steadily decreasing, even in such a vocation as housekeeping, and "it seems indisputable that the importance of the school relatively to that of the home in the education of youth is increasing." (Carleton, p. 51.) We have to face the fact that the problems of to-day—at least to the majority—are mainly industrial, and not agricultural; that science has revolutionized the kind of work to be done and the kind of man or woman needed to do it; that more changes have been made in the last sixty years than in the preceding three centuries, and finally we have to recognize that almost all educational machinery has to some extent ignored these changes, that it has been arranged for the benefit of those who expect to work "with clean hands and good clothes" and not in the interests of industrial progress. Since the State is a tax-supported system and cannot, therefore, con-

sistently legislate in the interests of classes, it is likely that the demand of national progress, since it affects all classes, will strengthen the bands of State control in education. To quote Dean, "A way must be found of involving public ownership of schools so that they may be managed for the benefit of all the people" (p. 192).

This is nothing more than educating man as *man*, and child as *child*, and this is one of the best features of the work so far accomplished by State systems, and one which will be immensely augmented in the twentieth century. "A large proportion," says Kidd, "of the population in the prevailing state of society take part in the rivalry of life only under conditions which absolutely preclude them, whatever their nature, merit or ability, from any real chance therein, such chances being at present the exclusive privilege of wealth." (Kidd, Social Evolution, p. 232.) That the State control of education with its training of teachers and its compulsory facilities and compulsory attendance has to some extent restored the balance and will doubtless still further do so, hardly needs argument, the principal aim of such measures being that whatever talent there is in the nation may have the fullest opportunity to reach its maximum growth. As Ware says: "It should be the business of the State to develop man as *man* and not as mere tradesman, etc." And this is the attitude of Germany, her expenditure being directed to the maximum development of the pupil without regard to future occupation. This was the gospel of Rousseau which had such force in France and Prussia. In the very first chapter of his famous book we find pithy sentences like this: "All that we have not at our birth, and that we need when grown up, is given us by education"; "The vocation common to all men is the state of manhood"; "Teach him how to live"; "True education consists less in precept than in *practice*"; "Do not educate for social distinctions." Fanciful and illogical as his methods were, the ideas at their base have been steadily incorporated in our educational systems. The

changes brought about by the Renaissance in religious communities emphasized the value of man apart from his social standing. The influence of Rousseau and the Naturalists, and finally the reaction from the formal theories of the Enlightenment and the return to a great admiration of the old Greeks, whose educational system was for citizenship and life, caused Germany to abandon any distinct class system under public management. That this humanistic ideal must be fulfilled by greater vocational education seems inevitable under modern conditions, for "the practical solution will only be reached when a true adjustment is made between the process of education and the life for which that education is intended to be a preparation." That the English Government has such an aim in view is shown by the preamble to the Secondary Schools Act, 1908. In the United States, whatever tendency there might have been towards the education of the people in classes separated by social distinction was checked and finally prevented by the action of Horace Mann in advocating and establishing "schools by the people, for the people," where at least in elementary stages the son of the millionaire and the son of the laborer might sit side by side. Starting thus, and with an educational ladder before him nationally organized and nationally supported, there would seem to be a realization of an ideal system which would give every individual a chance to attain " a maximum of personal culture and social efficiency according to his natural gifts and the strength of his will." That this is not altogether a recent ideal is interestingly shown in the work of Robert Owen, 1816, one of England's earliest social reformers, who argued for a highly organized State control, imposing upon all citizens a system of education "to mould character and determine social ideals." Later, Bentham argued that, granted man is treated as man in the State, and given manhood franchise, the inference would be to treat him as man in education and provide facilities.

Looked at from this point of view, the content of edu-

cation changes. Special class training can be met by special provisions, but man as man has to be treated as an animal with common activities and characteristics, hence the introduction of manual training, domestic science, the kindergarten, drawing, etc., all of which would have lagged far behind or have been the advantages of a select few under private enterprise.

More than this, the standpoints of equal opportunity and of the needs of a common nature have probably caused the most striking change in the nineteenth century, and that is, the education of girls. The State has in some countries opened secondary public education to them, and in England university education, while their rapidly increasing employment in the teaching profession has compelled the State to train them side by side with men teachers, and to exact similar standards of scholarship. The decay of home training and the great number engaged in commercial or industrial establishments has compelled the school authorities to provide at the command and with the assistance of the State, facilities for domestic branches and for vocational pursuits.

Another feature of State control which justifies its existence is the vast yearly expenditure of each nation upon its educational budget, an expenditure which would be condemned at once at the polls if it were not for the fact, sometimes openly stated, more often tacitly accepted, that education is a good investment both for the individual and for the State; in other words, that an effective national system is a distinct asset.

On a business basis, then, the national aim through State control should be conservation (including the prevention of deterioration) and expansion. "The production of men," says Carleton, "is more important than the production of things, while progress is fast or slow in the proportion in which each individual is enabled to fit himself for, and to perform his appropriate functions." The father of political economy, Adam Smith, asserted that the expense

of institutions for education is beneficial to the whole society and may therefore not without injustice be defrayed by a general contribution of the whole society. In industry the great cry is for skilled foremen, with an intelligent grasp of the principles of their work, and it is recognized that the expense of training these is returned fourfold to the community. Speaking of educational finance, an American writer considers that the "growing feeling of satisfaction with the national system of raising and appropriating revenue for national needs such as protection, trade, etc. (in the United States) may lead to the feeling that as education is a national asset it should be assisted and supervised more largely by the supreme authority . . . for the education of children goes deeper than their relation to the home or to a local community"; in other words, "Education is a social investment paying good returns." Whenever the State considers man as an asset with latent possibilities and not as a mere receptacle capable or incapable of being filled with a certain quantum of formal facts, the value of the individual to the State will be enhanced, and assurance will be given that expenditure will not be made without profit. It is this feeling—that our boys and girls are the greatest natural asset of the State—that justifies us in asking that educational affairs should cease from being in any way a political football, and should become a sociological problem taxing the powers of the highest intelligence in the national legislatures.

But business instinct provides not only for the present but for the future. The boy of to-day is the citizen and parent of to-morrow. In the past, educational institutions were either ecclesiastical or philanthropical and good so far as they extended, or else were private institutions looking merely for gain, and usually retrogressive or wasteful. To the wider view of modern statesmanship, having regard to the future of the State as a whole and seeing more clearly the real relation of the State to foreign enterprises, the youth must be trained not only for present environment

but also for future conditions. This wider and more national view presupposes, for effectiveness, the control of education by State authorities, local administration being granted in proportion to the political instincts of the people.

That this position is in accord with the latest thought in sociology, let me quote four principles laid down by Dr. Ward:

(a) The youth of to-day stands upon the heights so laboriously reached by thinkers and experimenters of the past, and can advance in his turn to heights undreamt of a generation ago.

(b) The latent abilities of four-fifths of mankind can be turned to account in the work of civilization, for they possess potential abilities in the same proportion to their numbers as the highest social class.

(c) Something more than mere common school education is required to achieve success.

(d) It is an entirely practical proposition (for the State) to provide every member of society with such an education as will enable him to select and successfully pursue a career. If society could see this in its full meaning it would perceive that it would be the most economical of all public measures. (Applied Sociology, pp. 229, 230.)

We have spoken of the State thus guiding education as a business enterprise, under the heading of investment and economy, two well-known business principles. It may be added further that in the eyes of many the best claim State control has to justify its existence and its augmentation is that it can supply the necessary capital, can direct this through necessary channels, and can use compulsion throughout its ramifications in a way that no mere private enterprise or local authority could do. Besides this, it can, like other businesses, make experiments (even costly ones), which could not well be attempted by local effort, yet having an incidence of cost which would amount to the merest fraction per capita of the population. Especially is this so

where the State has considered that the promotion of education is as necessary as the promotion of railroads et al, and the conservation of our boys and girls as valuable a p ement as the preservation of our forests. In disbursing this cash, too, the State has an advantage of being non-sectarian; it does not need to demand local or religious restrictions, as is usually the case with private benefactions,; its only demand being the right and the duty of seeing that the nation's money is being spent for the nation's welfare. It can also offer cash prizes in the shape of grants to stimulate local enthusiasm and progress, or to supplement scanty local resources.

By the opening of the twentieth century the public had become accustomed to look to the State for grants, and this attitude, coupled with the rapid increase of school population, the increase in expense of equipment and in the number of teachers, has in all countries enormously increased the State contribution. In Ontario, for instance (1911), the amount given was twenty-five per cent. of all Government expenditure.

It would be easy to supply figures to prove the rapidly growing State cost of education, but although figures are said "not to lie," it would be more accurate to say that they may be made to prove anything you wish. Thus, to obtain any correct ratio, the State grants, the actual number of children paid for, the cost per capita, the ratio of this to the general ratio of the rise in the price of labor and of equipment, and to the total added wealth of the country, would have to be worked out, including also the increase in number of teachers, the percentage of increase in salaries, the whole problem being more extended than the scope of the present essay calls for.

Next, with regard to economy—the other feature of State intervention—we have in all countries more or less successful attempts at enforcing compulsory attendance. (Part II., Ch. II.) Here it is evident that an external force, free from local prejudice, can do more than local

initiative and can override sloth and distaste; moreover, since the problem of the wasted years of adolescence is beginning to claim more attention, it seems likely that State control will assume greater authority in this respect.

There is one department of the State's activity which, while not a question of control, is so closely related to it, besides absorbing a share of educational grants, that reference must be made to it here, and that is, its office as a bureau of information and advice. One naturally thinks at once of the United States Bureau of Education, founded in 1867, and issuing voluminous reports under the guidance of Drs. Barnard, Eaton, Dawson, Harris, Brown- and Claxton, which have laid the whole pedagogical world under obligation to them. Let an American leader in education—Dr. Butler—give his estimate of its work and worth.

"The United States Bureau of Education does a most exact, stimulating and beneficent work. Without exercising any authority, it is untiring and scientific in gathering data, in the philosophic treatment of educational subjects, and in furnishing the fullest information upon every conceivable phase of educational activity to whomsoever would accept it. Its operations have by no means been confined to the United States. It has become the great educational clearing house of the world. It has collected the facts and made most painstaking research into every movement in America and elsewhere which gave promise of advantage to the good cause of popular education." (Education in the United States, Vol. I., p. 24.)

A similar work, but not achieved in such a systematic or accessible way, has been done in England and Canada by special commissions which have gathered data on special subjects such as university or industrial education. Further, wherever parliamentary responsibility holds sway, the Minister in charge of education has been compelled to offer to the Legislature an accurate report of statistics and advance for each legislative year.

On the whole, therefore, it may be said that State control confers more benefits than voluntary local control, in

that it is enabled to recognize and provide for every unit of the nation, to produce greater efficiency, to bring about better correlation, to improve environment, to conduct education upon business lines, to enforce regulations for the general welfare, and to provide information for all those seeking to improve local and national administration.

Chapter IV.

TENDENCIES.

A consideration of the forces arrayed against State control, and of the arguments and advantages favoring its continuance (including also the historical fact that State control has been and is increasing in civilization), may easily lead to the further consideration of the future of State intervention as exhibited in the tendencies observable in the various national systems.

The prevention of child-labor is one of these. There is a growing feeling that the years of adolescence are too frequently worse than wasted, by employment for long hours, by indoor life, by too early responsibility, by the lack of opportunity to indulge in the freedom of action or in healthy recreation, which is the undoubted birthright of all whom the State hopes to consider efficient citizens. Laws, therefore, limiting the age at which work will begin will tend to become stricter and will advance the initial age. The correlation of this will, of course, be that some provision, usually compulsory, will have to be made to prevent these years being altogether wasted in idleness and frivolous pursuits, or possibly in crime. There will have to be, it seems, a schematic connection between State laws for the factory and State laws for the school; while signs are not wanting that the compulsory school age will be raised to sixteen.

Another tendency which sometimes appears to be away from State control is the autonomous administration of city education. Efficient control of a very large school population in a comparatively restricted area is quite a different problem from the control of a similar number in scattered rural communities, and can best be administered by a centralized city board. New York and London are good examples of this, and while the State expects the same standards to be met, in general the administration is largely

left to the municipality. This will re-act in favor of Sta
control, since the object lesson of efficient central gron
will accustom the people to view legislation over larg
areas with equanimity.

Another tendency, most strongly seen in England an
the United States, is the linking up of primary and secon
ary education into a complete system, both for purposes o
efficiency and economy, as well as for the added opportun
ties offered to natural ability in any station of life to ris
to any height on the educational ladder. This is one of th
chief democratic tendencies of modern social life, a level
ling up of the disadvantages of the proletariat and a level
ling down of the advantages previously enjoyed by the
wealthy or by higher social ranks.

Then again, the teaching body has tended more and
more to become a distinct profession, State trained and
State guaranteed, but with emoluments dictated by the
poverty or the economy of the districts employing them.
Other States which look to Prussia for inspiration are
likely to copy that country's arrangements by which the
teacher can look forward to some chance of being able to
live with fair comfort after forty or forty-five years of
faithful service. It is true that economic laws have forced
salaries up to a living wage, but as soon as conditions have
adjusted themselves a little and the supply of teachers has
become sufficient the situation is then likely to remain for
a considerable time much as it was before. There are signs
also, both in French and German reports, that the State
system has by its rigidity limited too much the individual-
ity of the teacher in his work, and that in future more lati-
tude will be given.

There is a rapidly increasing tendency in modern life,
especially in business life, to centralization of control, and
this has been reflected strongly in educational history in
the past ten or twenty years and seems likely to continue.
This is more noticeable in countries like England and the
United States, where heterogeneous schools have long ex-

isted and where the connection of various grades of schools has been loose. So Dean says: "Unconsciously, but no less rapidly, we are moving toward a more or less centralized governmental control of educational institutions." Another writer states: "The whole recent tendency has been towards common ideals, the same statutory requirements, and similar methods." The most striking example of rapid growth towards centralization is shown in the changed position of the State Superintendent in the United States, and this growth is likely to go forward until it is the usual condition to find an expert head in each state in whose office the ramifications of the whole State system are centered. One may perhaps be permitted to prophesy here, that there will come a time when the Superintendents of all the States, meeting in a federal council or conference annually, may devise and carry out a kind of national system for the Republic with due regard for local conditions, but with a common purpose and with general regulations for all, which would weld such a system into a force which would raise it to such a pitch of excellence that it might be a model for federated communities living under similar conditions.

Already in miniature such a consolidation is going on in several States of the Union, and county districts are being united under central authorities. Slow and hesitating as the steps have been in England in this respect, they are now visibly hastening. "The experience of England under the Endowed Schools Act," says Dr. Sadler, "showed that a central authority was necessary for a scheme of national education." Hard as it is to arouse Englishmen to a sense of what is needed, when once persuaded, they pursue a course with a more steady and rapid advance than one would expect. The changes made in the New York State system in 1891 will probably be copied by other States before long. "The current of legislation and the decisions of the courts are making it imperative on the State to control and centralize education," while "Political

economy and sociology affecting State welfare are forc
tending toward centralization." (Draper, Education
the United States, 1904.) That these forces will tend
absorb all the educational institutions of the country is t
opinion of the same writer, for he says: "The tendency
regulate private action by legislation is unmistakeable

There is a growing tendency to separate educatio fro
political bias in the holding, especially in the United State
both in civic and in society administration. In countrie
where there are separate or voluntary schools (as in Eng
land and Canada) though the general tendency is t
separate education from politics still as long as there ar
religions or sectarian differences, or where the rights of
minority are called in question, there is a likelihood of th
situation becoming acute at times. Then, since change
have to be made through parliamentary channels, the whol
question may divide political parties and thus restore again
some measure of the old political struggles on educationa
questions.

Another tendency is towards the strict enforcement
of compulsory attendance laws. Once accustomed to these,
and the principle generally accepted by the people, the like-
lihood is that the State, wherever it finds leakage, will tend
to tighten up the bonds of discipline until it reaches all
delinquents. If compulsory attendance proves successful
in countries where it is most strictly enforced, other States
will adopt similar measures.

That increasing attention is being paid to the physical
training of school pupils is abundantly evident. Regula
tions dealing with drill and free gymnastic exercises, d
manding also equipment in suitable gymnasiums, have been
issued by all civilized countries. The strain of modern
school-life, the crowding into cities, the absence of so many
healthy activities around the home which characterized life
a generation ago, have compelled school authorities to take
measures to provide for the health of pupils as well as for
their instruction. Scientific and pedagogical studies have

emphasized the close relation of the physical and the mental, and although in the pages of Herbert Spencer, in the reports of Dr. Ryerson, and in professional literature of European and American schools we find much exhortation, it is not until recent years that the systematic enforcement of regulations by boards of education acting under central control, has been at all common. All the causes are likely to continue and even increase in strength, so that we may expect further effects in the same direction in coming years.

A general tendency, observable in recent years, and due to action reflected from the supervision of hygiene and health by municipal authorities is towards medical inspection in the schools. This tendency is also to the increasing use of the child study for the replacement of classification of those who are clever and those who are dull, by a search for physical causes of mental defect. In England State action has already begun. By the act of 1907 attention to physique is expressly stipulated and the duty of having all children medically inspected in primary schools is placed on the shoulders of the local educational authority. Austria began state inspection as early as 1873; several States in Germany have efficient laws; France has passed similar legislation. Several cities in the United States and Canada have departments carefully organized for this purpose, possessing the best equipment. In the United States a single state has taken up the subject, but the early success will cause action, while we are assured on good authority that there is a likelihood of the United States Bureau establishing a department to study problems of school hygiene and to improve conditions by sending out pamphlets of information, statistics and advice. Since 1907 the Russell Sage Foundation has done splendid work providing playgrounds in congested city areas, laboratories for the detection of disease, and assistance to societies devoted to the physical well-being of the school population.

(Nelson, Eney. S. V.)

An inspiring feature of the trend of events in educational circles is the place of the expert in the system, especially as related to the central authorities. Probably in no direction had education made greater strides than in the attitude of mind expected of all teachers, and particularly of secondary teachers and inspectors, towards their professional equipment. The works of the masters, Herbert, Froebel, etc., have been translated into every tongue, with series of works dealing with the history or science of education, and educational journals have rapidly multiplied, becoming both cause and effect of the new pedagogy. To the mere visitor, who saw that things were being done, has succeeded the inspector trained to criticize, appraise and report. In the United States the superintendents are all experts, and the tendency is to make the position one that only a man of experience, professional knowledge, and strong force of character can fill. In France, the Superior Council consists of more than fifty educationalists, fifteen of whom form a permanent section. In Germany, Dr. Paulsen tells us that all important changes are preceded by a conference of the great leaders in education. England has recently formed a Consultative Commitee, to which she has called her most distinguished teachers. In Ontario much remains to be done, for, while in recent progress the aid of the expert has been called in, the domination of the universities through examinations has led to the professors having more control over education than the expert teacher.

Another tendency, common to the schools of all countries, but more noticeable in America, is the rapid extension of the public library idea into the schools. School libraries are being formed even in the most remote rural districts, access is given to the reference volumes in the free libraries or Mechanics' Institutes, the seminary system is spreading from the college to the school. France, with her wide system of evening classes, has long had more facilities in this direction than other countries, but the budgets of all nations show increasing State grants to public libraries, art galleries, etc., which re-act on the schools.

The percentage of women employed in the schools has shown such a rapid increase that at the present day they far outnumber the men in primary, and are reversing the balance in secondary education. This is, of course, only a natural result of the revolution in the education of girls. Co-education is the rule in America; it is not so common in Germany; in England since 1903 some County Councils have made some schools co-educational. Their numbers have made it possible and equitable to give them representation on boards and commissions. (In 1894 three women were in the Royal Commission on Education.) In the United States a woman is the efficient superintendent of one of the largest city systems. In Canada (Ontario) (1910), while more than 80 per cent. of primary teachers are women, in secondary education only 35 per cent. are women; in Great Britain 73 per cent. (1908); in New York (1910) the figure rose to 89 per cent., and legislation was passed that year making their initial salary the same as for men; thus all present conditions point to an increased femininization of our schools.

Lastly, and yet foremost in future importance, I may mention the tendency towards increased State intervention in vocational education. The growing feeling that a training in greater manual skill is becoming a national necessity, while methods in all departments of activity are becoming increasingly subservient to scientific laws and principles, the rapid industrial success of Germany since the Commission of 1856, have compelled already large State grants to technical education. England's Act of 1906 created schools for continuation of elementary work having for their object "The provision of special instruction bearing on the future occupation of the scholars, whether boys or girls." In the United States the higher schools are showing a tendency to differentiate into vocational and commercial as well as professional sections. In Ontario increasing aid during the past six years has been given to agricultural teaching; while an Act in 1911 provides for

industrial and technical training, combining what is best in the systems of England, the United States and Prussia. That the tendency to differentiate the courses after primary education will develop somewhat rapidly seems entirely probable in the face of present action. The principle of division will tend to be more in the line of making the culture side of education, as Dr. De Garmo says, (Proceedings O. E. A., 1910), a recreation, and the technical side a living subject with an outlook upon the real life of the future. Because the foundation of technical and trade schools is an expensive matter, the tendency will therefore be to apply for considerable State aid to supplement voluntary effort in founding local schools.

Chapter V.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

England.—In theory the Board of Education created in 1899 and subdivided for England and Wales in 1907 consists of the Lord President of the Council, the Secretaries of State, the First Lord of the Treasury, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer; in practice the Board never meets, but the work is carried out by two permanent secretaries and a parliamentary secretary, assisted by a large staff of inspectors and sub-inspectors and by a Consultative Committee of eighteen members, mainly experts, representing both the primary and secondary schools. Scotland has a Committee of Council on Education, consisting theoretically of the Lord President of the Council, seven other Ministers of the Crown, and a permanent secretary, who really carries on the work. Ireland has twenty Commissioners of National Education, the resident Commissioner being practically the head of the system.

State control is through financial grants given only to those schools which satisfy conditions of equipment, etc., and these are extended to secondary schools only if "they offer a higher grade and wider scope than that of an elementary school, with a progressive course of instruction suitable for scholars from 12 to 17."

Local affairs in England are in the hands of a County, Borough, or Union District Council; it was easy, therefore, to delegate educational administration to sub-committees of these bodies. In view of the remarks made in a previous part of this essay about the obstacles to educational progress in England, the conclusion of a report of 1908 by the Consultative Committee is significant. "We find it would be difficult, if not impossible, to devise any uniform system (i.e., of sub-committees) for the country; the reason being that the personnel and educational history and traditions of the county often have nearly as close a bearing on its

educational organization as its geographical or industrial conditions."

In Ireland the old Science and Art Department was replaced in 1899 by an Agricultural and Technical Instruction Board; a special board of twenty members called "Intermediate" was given charge of secondary education. (Hazell's Annual, 1911.)

Germany.

For federal Germany as a whole there is no imperial educational authority, although an Imperial School Commission was appointed in 1875. In Prussia, all—including private—schools are under royal authority. At Berlin resides a Minister of ecclesiastical, educational and medical affairs, responsible only to the crown, with a staff of assistants appointed by the State, and with sub-committees for each department. The Kingdom is divided into thirteen provinces, having a chief executive aided by four or five councillors, usually experienced teachers. Each province is divided into districts corresponding roughly to our counties, in which four or five Schulräte control the elementary schools for different sections, while each Regierung is divided into districts controlled by an administrative officer called the Landrat. The legal powers of the local boards are restricted to the establishment of an approved type of school: the teacher, curriculum, and inspection being in the hands of the province. Prussia has been called a decentralized democracy.

United States.

As in Germany, there is no federal control, but each State has its own system: in some cases a State Board of Education, in New York a Board of Regents, in most of the States a State Superintendent of Education with an official staff and an advisory committee of members of the State University or State Normal Schools. The cities are practically autonomous. Except in three or four cases (notably New York), State subventions are too small com-

paratively to cause any serious discussion, except when educational matters form part of a political platform. The prevalent type of administration (except in the Southern States) is the school district with its financial matters controlled by local trustees.

France.

The French system is a strongly centralized one, under a Minister of Public Instruction, who is a member of the Cabinet. He is assisted by a Superior Council having administrative, judicial and disciplinary powers over the whole educational system; this Council consists of 57 experts, 15 of which form a permanent committee. The country is divided into seven inspectoral districts and also into seventeen administrative departments called "academies," in which the Rector of the Lycée and the chief inspector are supreme. "Bureaucratic tendencies are checked by the pedagogic element. The teachers are a highly organized body of State functionaries, united by ideals and aims which are inspired by the State, their object being to strengthen the Republic by education." (C. E. R., 1910.) The commune or local schools are in charge of a local board with little power.

Ontario.

The Education Department has control of all except private education or endowments in the Province. The Minister of Education is a member of the Cabinet and is technically held responsible. He is assisted by a Deputy Minister, a Chief Superintendent, a Registrar, and a large staff of clerks. Changes are practically made at the instigation of the Chief Superintendent and the High School inspectors, or by professional opinion crystallized by the more progressive inspectors of the various branches of education and brought to the attention of the Minister. While the Province trains and qualifies the teachers, regulates rigidly the curriculum and the textbooks, and pre-

scribes equipment, the maintenance is left to the local School Boards, who raise about 80 per cent. of the expenditure. These Boards are usually separate, one for Public School and one for High School needs, but sometimes form a joint board. Technical instruction has been recently placed in the hands of local committees with consultative members from local factories and trades, both of employers and workmen.

PART II.

CHAPTER I.

THE CONTROL OF BUILDINGS.

ENGLAND.—In 1832 England took "the first step on that course from which the State has never since drawn back" (Craik) by setting aside £20,000 for education. This was not a legislative measure, but a grant to aid the building of schools in poorer districts in England and Scotland, and was administered by the National Society (Anglican), the British and Foreign School Society (Nonconformist), or the Kirk Session (Presbyterian). No building plan was adopted, no inspection provided, and no guarantees secured, so that the results were not entirely satisfactory, and in the following year the locality was compelled to raise a sum equal to the grant it received.

In 1839 came the Education Department, i.e., a select committee of the Privy Council created by an Order-in-Council—note the indirect method of legislating—and not yet reporting directly to Parliament. This body projected a State Normal School, the advantages of which would have been incalculable, but the opposition of religious parties shelved the plan, leaving England to be provided for by denominational training colleges, practically private, but receiving State aid.

In 1839 the new Council on Education added to its grants the provisos of inspection, a fixed plan, a permanent building trust fund, and appropriation. "The Board may properly fit up, improve, or enlarge any schoolhouse and supply apparatus or lease land" (Act, S. 19). This gave the State an opportunity to take over and improve buildings previously furnished by voluntary agencies.

The Act of 1843 further extended the grant to apparatus and furniture, with increased aid to teacher-training colleges.

The revised Code of 1861 ordered the building to be inspected and approved before earning the grant. No great change tok place until the important Act of 1870 created school districts (the borough and the parish) and ordered rate-levying Boards to see that each district had an approved building, with power to supply where none existed. This combination of central direction with municipal responsibility and control, aided by State subsidies, has been the principal feature of all educational changes in England. An important step in administration was taken at the same time, when the Government ordered Local Boards to send in estimates of the needed additions, then specified the accommodation to be furnished, and finally submitted to Parliament each year a report of the money spent. These schools were to be open to the visit of Her Majesty's inspectors at any time; further, if the elected Board failed in its duty the State simply dissolved it and ordered another to be chosen.

Since 1889 considerable grants have been made towards the building of technical schools, and since 1902 many voluntary school buildings have been taken over by the Local Educational Authorities, but the principle of State specification, State inspection and State grants-in-aid has been consistently followed. The regulations dealing with the plans which must be furnished to the Board of Education are stricter than in any other country.

United States.

Only a few States legislate as to the proper requirements of school buildings. In New York State the Superintendent may condemn old schoolhouses and order new ones to be built; the State also insists on proper air-space and adequate facilities for rapid exit in case of fire; Massachusetts regulates air-space, and Pennsylvania heating, lighting and ventilating before a building is approved. Five other States have followed suit as regards sanitation; the tendency is that through enlightened public opinion

and activity in medical health society projects similar legislation will be adopted all over the States.

Germany.

The system is very similar to that of England, the Landrat or Government representative in each district being responsible for sufficient and satisfactory provision under State restrictions before the building is approved. Sanitary condition, air space, lighting, etc., are defined. In the Prussian Constitution, Articles 24 and 25, it is stated that the external maintenance of schools and the means for establishing the public school system are to be furnished by the civil communities, but "in case of inability the State may furnish the means." A supervising architect, nonpolitically appointed, reviews and signs the plans of local architects, thus centralizing and standardizing the accommodation.

France.

France differs from other countries in having a very large number of private schools, which have since 1882 come under central control and are expected to reach a reasonable standard of equipment. The communal schools are provided partly by local taxation subject to approval by the inspectors and the rector of each academy, the whole of France being divided into seventeen academies. The Lycées and the higher technical and professional schools have been built and equipped by the State, as also the normal schools, except that in the largest cities, as in the United States, municipal enterprise has usually shouldered the burden.

Ontario.

By the Act of 1816, by which common schools were organized and given legislative aid, the government grant was withheld until a suitable school house was built by local effort.

In 1841 five common school commissioners were to select sites, superintend buildings, etc.; the hold of the State was further strengthened in 1846 by requiring a building satisfactory to the Chief Superintendent.

The Act of 1850 laid down as one of the duties of trustees the purchase and proper repair and equipment for all schoolhouses and the building of a new one where needed; the money to be levied by local rate. Until 1876 all buildings were under the control of the Chief Superintendent and passed into the hands of the Department of Education. The most recent regulations to trustees (1910) define minutely qualifications of site, grounds, sanitation and equipment.

Chapter II.

CONTROL OF ATTENDANCE.

England.—Limitation or enforcement of attendance has been a feature of the past century only. Attendance was first regulated by Factory Acts, then by local by-laws, and finally by special legislation.

The first measure of State control in England was occasioned by the evils of the factory system. Children of tender years were exploited for the benefit of the wealthy factory owner and grew up in ignorance of even the common rudiments of education. An Act of Sir Robert Peel in 1802 ordered employers to see that they received the elements of mental and moral instruction. It is interesting to notice that a century later we find the State demanding that employers afford opportunities for higher learning and vocational training to their employees under 15 or 17. By the Act of 1833 no millowner could employ children between nine and thirteen without proof of their having attended school for twelve hours the previous week.

No statistics are available until the Revised Code of 1861 was promulgated, but estimates furnished the Commission give only one child in eight at school, the leaving age before eleven, and in some counties only six schools in operation where at least four hundred were needed. The Code placed the first State check on school atendance (in England) by the prineiple that the grant would only be given in respect to children who had completed 200 days of the school year.

By 1870 there were more children in State-aided than in voluntary schools ,but at least 2,000,000 were not at school at all. The great Act of that year (S. 74) gave power to local Boards to pass by-laws compelling the attendance of children between five and thirteen for a stated period, exemption being granted if the school was more than three miles distant by the nearest route. This "at-

tendance order" was extended to Scotland at a later date, as the new school boards there (created in 1872) had some difficulty about compulsion.

The State next proceeded to make the law more stringent and more uniformly administered by the Act of 1876 (S. 21), by which school attendance committees were to be formed where no regular School Boards existed. This Act enunciated the principle (Part I., S. 84) that "it is the duty of every parent to cause his child to receive elementary instruction in the three R's." Magistrates were also empowered to fine delinquents, thus bringing the question under the Common Law. The age-limit was more carefully defined; no child-labor under ten; none under fourteen without a certificate of proficiency; the school age raised to fourteen; a bonus given for children with a high average of attendance and efficiency. As in the case of "payment by results," we here see the State proceeding along the lines of least resistance by permission in the case of attendance by-laws, and by persuasion through State grants.

The lines were tightened in 1880, when compulsion took the place of permission (Act, S. 2) and Boards and Committees were compelled to enforce laws so ordered. The results were rapid and satisfactory; in 1870 five per cent. of the population attended school; by 1882 eleven and a half per cent. were registered. Exemption, however, could be claimed for children who had a record of 250 average yearly attendances and had passed Standard IV. of the Code.

The minimum age has been steadily raised: by Act of 1893 (S. 4) to eleven, by that of 1900 to twelve, for workshops and factories, while payment of the grant was based on aggregate attendance. The important Act of 1902 marked a new era of educational reform in England. It abolished all school attendance committees and put the whole matter under the newly constituted County or County Borough Councils; that is to say, under an educa-

tional committee of such councils, assisted in certain cases (especially in technical instruction) by co-opted members with pedagogical or practical experience. The Code of 1908 states that to earn the grant a school must show proof of at least 400 meetings a year.

That England has the same problem as that of other countries, namely, that of the too early completion of the school period, is shown by recent reports. (B. of E., 1908.) "Thirteen is the age at which exemption is usually claimed." "The standard of exemption varies between standards V. and VII. in different localities." One principal reports: "At present the chief difficulty in maintaining a satisfactory higher elementary school is the serious leakage of scholars as soon as they attain their fourteenth year. Of 40 who started in the highest class, only 14 are left; in the second, 44 began, 25 are left." He wisely adds: "The curriculum will have to be modified."

Germany.

As might be expected, Prussia, from its [illegible] organization and its view of State discipline, has [illegible] school attendance in no such dilatory and tentative way as England. As early as 1717 a decree of Frederick William I. made elementary education compulsory; while the General School Regulation of Frederick the Great, 1763, denotes the school age as five to thirteen, which has been for half a century raised to fourteen. It may be noted that, while in the United States and Canada secondary education is taken up on the completion of primary, in Germany boys intended for higher courses generally enter the secondary school lower classes as early as nine. Further, the habit of discipline in a State-regulated country, and parental interest, plus the bonus of exemption from two years of army training for those who complete certain courses, has made compulsion much easier in Germany than in more individualistic and democratic States.

The feature, however, which has most claimed the atten-

tion of other communities is the success with which—since 1873—Germany has grappled with the problem of adolescent education. By raising the factory minimum to 16 and even 17, and by compulsory attendance up to 18 in continuation schools for those out at work, Germany has raised the level of the average apprentice beyond that of any other country. This has been accomplished by State-law in ten of the federated States, by local by-laws in eleven (twelve including Bremen in 1908), and left voluntary in the other four. The age limit is 18 in Prussia and six other States; 17 in seven others, 16 in the rest; while in some parts of Prussia and in four other States girls are compelled to attend up to 16. (Huhl.) It is noticeable that since 1904 attendance on Sunday has been sternly discouraged and no attendance is required after 8 p.m. on week-days in Prussia, and after 7 p.m. in Bavaria.

NOTE.—Frederick II.'s royal order of 1763 was repeated in the Code of 1794 and the Law of 1819, with the penalty of fine or *imprisonment* for PARENTS.

United States.

Attendance laws were due, in the case of the early settlers, to the fact that education was a necessity; in the nineteenth century to the same cause as in England, namely, the exploitation of children in factories. The earliest law was passed by Massachusetts in 1642, but no reliable statistics exist for two centuries as to the success or failure of early legislation. Conditions were such that they aroused the determination of Horace Mann, and through his influence a truant law was passed in 1850, followed by a compulsory statute in 1852, prescribing a minimum of twelve weeks' schooling for all children between the ages of eight and fourteen. The Factory Acts of 1813 and 1842 had paved the way by forbidding the employment of children under fifteen except after three months' schooling. Mann brought them into the school. In the different States legislation and enforcement differ so much that, although all

the federal units have at some time or other passed laws, still they are not as successful as they ought to be, being rendered nugatory "mainly because being against tradition and against the feeling of individual rights." (Snedden.)

Roughly speaking, the age limits are 8—14 in almost all States; Maine has raised it to 15, New York and Colorado to 16. In six of the States the age has been extended to meet the illiteracy of foreign immigrants. Maine and Connecticut require proof of attendance at a private school if not on the public register, while truant officers are obligatory in New York, Massachusetts, Ohio and Colorado, the two latter supplying clothing and meals to needy pupils. In Connecticut the truant officer is State-appointed, and legislation in this State, and in Illinois and Massachusetts, is noted as satisfactory. Except in Kentucky and Maryland, there are no compulsory education laws in the Southern States. In New York attendance is excused where a satisfactory public school examination has been passed. Briefly, 30 States and 1 Territory, also the District of Columbia, have compulsory laws, the remaining States and Territories have not. Attendance limits vary from full time at school in New York to eight weeks in Kentucky, the average required being about 40 per cent.

France.

School attendance in France has by no means kept pace with the advance in organization, which began in the days of Napoleon. The existence of a large number of schools controlled by the Church, the kaleidoscopic changes of constitutions and ministries, the laissez-faire attitude of local authorities, have prevented efficient legislation during three-quarters of the nineteenth century, and it was not until after the Franco-Prussian War that some definite control was exercised.

In theory, since 1882 primary education at some school has been compulsory between the ages of six and thirteen, a school attendance committee (Commission Scolaire) being

appointed in each commune. In practice, parents expect the aid of their children as soon as the necessary State-given certificate (Certificate of Studies) is secured, which exempts them at eleven. In a recent report Prof. Sadler notes that three-fourths of the children leave before they have reached the age of 13, while a comparison of the percentage of illiterates in the army shows about 5 per cent. for France as compared with .04 for Germany. Although in 1904 there were five million children in the public primary schools, 30 per cent. of the primary schools were private Catholic institutions, and hence "libres," the number in attendance being about a million and a quarter. As early as 1793 the convention passed a resolution that all children throughout the Republic should be compelled to attend school.

Ontario.

Although the Acts of 1850 and 1852 established a public school system supported by local rates, and by monthly fees at the option of the ratepayers (Ross, p. 21)—Toronto's organization taking place in 1855—yet no provision had been made for enforcing attendance. The number of vagrant children and the increasing list of juvenile criminals led judge after judge, and jury after jury to give presentments condemning this state of affairs, and suggesting various remedies, one being compulsory legislation. In response, Dr. Ryerson drafted a bill in 1854 authorizing municipalities to pass by-laws imposing fines upon neglectful parents, but the Government "was not prepared to sanction what was regarded as an interference with parental rights." (Hodgins.)

The Chief Superintendent then submitted a resolution to the County Conventions, with the result that 27 passed motions in favor of compulsion, three against, and in five others amendments objecting to State interference were lost.

In 1868 the Legislature was petitioned to pass a com-

pulsory measure, but the Act was not put through until 1871, when magistrates were given power to fine parents whose children were not at school for at least four months in the year.

That the Act was not entirely satisfactory is shown by a circular in 1890, sent by the Hon. Sir G. W. Ross to all cities and towns in Ontario, for information on the "evils usually associated with irregular attendance at school." The answers led to the more stringent Act of 1891, which made full school time compulsory within the ages of eight and fourteen, unless proof were given of attendance at some other school, or a certificate of having passed the entrance examination to a High School was furnished. Truant officers were to be appointed by the municipal councils, and the Factory Acts were amended to exclude children from employment under fourteen. The results have been very satisfactory and lead the way for the possibility in the near future of imitating Germany's compulsory attendance at evening or continuation schools for a fixed period after fourteen.

THE TEACHER.

ENGLAND.—State control has progressed from mere financial assistance to more or less minute regulations as to qualifications and training, checked by efficient inspection. The available statistics of elementary education up to 1844 showed that the chief evil was the lack of effective teaching. Children were taught by scholars hardly older than themselves, and the results were appalling. "The reports of 1845 show only one-half leaving school able to read, one-fourth able to write, and two per cent. able to achieve the simplest processes of arithmetic."

The State's answer was the Pupil-Teacher system: pupils of thirteen were to be "apprenticed" to the principals for five years; four grants were given, i.e., to the principal, to the student-teacher during apprenticeship, scholarships at training colleges for three years, and augmentation of $100—$150 to his salary when certificated. Provision was also made for a pension. "The teachers became a class of State-servants, looking to the State for the certificate which opened to them their profession, and for a large part of their income." (Craik.)

Twelve years passed, during which no reports of the efficiency of the teaching are available, but the condition was such that in 1858 a Special Commission was created to gather information. The results were inconceivable. "Outside of the State-aided schools, outdoor paupers, discharged servants, cripples, consumptive patients, helpless aged women, formed a corps of teachers (?) for nearly one-third of the children."

The answer was the Revised Code of 1861. The teacher lost his status as a government protégée, his salary bonus went to the managers of the school, and his efficiency was stimulated by the system of "Payment by results" on the one hand, and was checked by official inspection on the

other. State-aid was to be proportionate to the success of his pupils under yearly examination.

The same code was extended to Scotland for apparently the opposite reason. Ever since 1696, when an Act compelled each Scotch parish to provide and pay for a school and a teacher (he was to receive about $75 with free house, garden, and school fees), the latter's value to national progress has been incalculable and needs no reference here. But its very excellence was a defect, for reports showed that teachers were prone to bring clever boys on at the expense of all the others; hence it was hoped that the earning power of the Code would tend to redress the balance Much dissatisfaction was caused by this Code, for it was claimed that a mere dead-level of mediocrity would result, but the system was gradually accepted. It was finally abolished in both countries in 1904.

Further steps were taken to encourage the teacher who intended to make the profession a life-work. By contributing $15 a year (men) or $10 (women) a teacher at 65 could retire with a fixed annuity (1898); this arrangement has been modified in recent years by minute regulations as to payments for proportional terms of service. In 1899 the legislature appointed a committee to draw up a register of qualified teachers in elementary schools, a system which will be extended to those in secondary schools. By the Act of 1902 (sec. 7. 1. (a) and (c)) the Local Educational Authority directs the number and qualifications of the teachers it needs, and must consent to the appointment or concur in the dismissal of teachers (except on religious grounds).

The training of teachers as a state duty has been practically neglected in England until the past few years. It was left to the action of the various religious bodies connected with education, who founded residential or Day Training Colleges, subject to inspection. These were given State aid, especially towards building. In the last twenty years the Provincial universities have been encouraged to

add Day Normal classes, with observation, practice, and criticism, these also being subsidized and inspected. That under Prof. Sadler, at Manchester, is probably the most efficient and most widely known. In another way the prospective teacher was being aided by Diplomas granted after examination by Cambridge and London Universities, necessitating the register previously mentioned.

In elementary teaching the earlier ideal was for pupil-teachers to put in part time in teaching and part in study—a system of trial and error possessing defects of (1) the low age of the teacher, and (2) the effect of his inexperience on his classes. To offset this, the State, in 1903, attached teachers in training to secondary schools earning Government grants. In 1907, aid was given by National Bursaries to induce or help the student to stay at a secondary school up to 17 or 18, and not try practical teaching until he entered a Training College.

The increasing number of teachers in 1902, and the limited number of Training Colleges, obliged the Government to assist those established by Local Authorities by giving 75 per cent. of capital expenditure toward building. Many of these colleges were denominational, and not subject to a conscience clause, although supported mainly by public funds. Mr. McKenna, in spite of much opposition, passed regulations forbidding teachers' training establishments from excluding any candidates on account of religious beli f or social status, while all new colleges were to be free and open. So much outcry was raised that the State was compelled to amend the regulation so as to exempt only 50 per cent. of the student body.

The last step of the State has been to fix most definitely the qualifications of the teacher (Code of 1908, Schedule L). He must (a) be over 20, (b) be physically sound, (c) hold a Training College certificate, or (d) the Board's certificate, or (e) a degree of any British or Colonial University, plus a certificate of proficiency in the Theory and Practice of Teaching. He then becomes a certificated

Teacher of the Board of Education. A Teacher of a lower rank—uncertificated—must hold a Matriculation certificate or its equivalent, and have passed an examination in (a) the subjects to be taught, (b) any language approved by the Board (this is optional and includes Welsh) and after 1912 (c) Hygiene and Physical Training.

Germany.

It is the Prussian State which can fairly claim the double distinction of having organized the earliest training for teachers, and of possessing to-day a corps of professional teachers whose extended training, average remuneration and future prospects are better and more certain than in any other country.

As elsewhere, however, the original conditions were not encouraging, especially in primary education. Paulsen notes that in 1738 the first encouragement came to the profession (?) when country schoolmasters were granted the monopoly of tailoring in their respective villages; while from 1750, for nearly a century, the parish clerk was, in the larger villages, ipso facto, the village schoolmaster. Nor did Frederick the Great's decree that superannuated soldiers be given this position, tend to mend matters.

In the higher grades, teachers were nominated by patrons (generally the Town Council) who "always appointed clergymen," but these were replaced by secular teachers by a rescript of 1810, which raised them to the rank of a profession, after passing an examination, credit being given for special proficiency in some branch of learning. In 1763, a State subsidy was given to Hecker's Training College for teachers with practice in a Realschule. These principles have been followed for a century, so that State-training, practice and observation and devotion to scholarship and research still mark out the path for the prospective German pedagogue.

By 1840 there were 38 training colleges, giving two years' study in Primary subjects, and one year's practice-teaching in attached schools, the students being "allowed to choose their own models, and work out their own salvation."

The regulations of 1872 enlarged the field of study and raised the standard of primary Teachers, while, in 1901, new orders demanded a wide acquaintance with German literature, higher mathematics, and one foreign language, to be taken as a six-year course.

The teacher has been encouraged to improve himself and his position by State-provided lecture courses, by grants of special leave of absence for travelling or residential scholarships in foreign countries, vacation courses at a University, etc.

The necessity for State control over the standard of female teachers compelled the State to exercise supervision over girls' schools of a certain rank. In 1894, schools leaving nine or ten classes were State-recognized and officially examined in (a) Language and Literature, or (b) Mathematics and Science.

A brief list of the qualifications of a German Teacher may not be out of place:

(a) Three years at a University; B.A. not necessary.

(b) Study of Psychology and Pedagogy.

(c) A cultured German education.

(d) Serious reflection on religious teaching.

(e) A State examination (oral and written).

(f) Two years' professional training. This is observation, considerable practice-teaching, criticism from experienced teachers, visits to several schools.

(g) Stamp of approval by Provincial Board of Inspectors.

Promotion is slow, but his position is assured, and age and experience bring higher remuneration.

United States.

It is stated that the first Normal School was established in Massachusetts in 1839, an action due mainly to three causes: (1) An increasing demand of education, by the democracy, (2) the influence of German advance in this direction, (3) the energy of Horace Mann.

Previous to this, teachers were the product of the grammar schools and academies, viz., prospective lawyers or doctors, and the brightest pupils in the country schools. The example at Lexington was rapidly followed, and a teachers' course, covering the subjects of the curriculum, the Science and Art of Teaching, and Moral Instruction, was adopted in many States. Some place restriction earlier. Dutton states, "For a century the laws have insisted that some test should be applied to the qualifications of the Teacher." The course of study in Massachusetts was prescribed by the State Board of Education, and a practice school was attached. Many of the Normal Schools were due at first to private liberality, but were later incorporated into the State system. There are now Normal Schools in practically every State; New York has 12; Pennsylvania, 13; Maine, 9; all other States except Ohio from 1 to 7. Their progress has been at times retarded by insufficient State grants, but this is a thing of the past. Generally speaking, a High School leaving certificate is required for admission, and the course of study reflects the aims of the State authorities, the examinations and certificates being almost everywhere under the control of the State Superintendent, who has unlimited authority in these respects. There are also Normal Colleges for higher certificates, and summer schools for improvement.

State control varies: in some the State Board of Education directs; in others, Special Boards, or Boards of Regents named by the Governor or the Legislature; in a few, the school has its own Board; in almost all the State Superintendent is an ex-officio member. The public appropriation in 1919 was about five million dollars.

Secondary school Teachers can, in many cases, attend a three or four years' advanced course, the indications being that all universities and leading colleges will give these in connection with departments in education which have been established in the past decade or so. Very few of the States, however, make an specific requirement for a High School teacher's certificate, except the primary license, but in practice a college degree is expected. In New York (1897), 40 per cent., in California 59 per cent., were graduates, while in professional equipment the standard has been sensibly rising. The Michigan State Normal College gives the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy to those successfully completing its four-year course. New York has a Normal course of four years, and an academic one of five, giving the arts and pedagogy degree.

In 1895, New York established "model schools of 38 weeks' instruction in teaching methods, etc.," under State supervision, with State assistance, the State Superintendent reporting it "as the most important statute (as regards results) relating to its subject which has been enacted by any State in the Union."

Most of the training, however, is given in privately owned and conducted Normal classes, the figures in 1898 giving about 40,000 for State as against 24,000 of non-State trained teachers. "Numerous as they are," says Hinsdale, "they come far short of supplying the demands of the elementary schools."

France.

The majority of teachers for rural schools (such as there were) were not better qualified, organized or supported than in other countries (except in Germany) at the close of the eighteenth century. Napoleon began to extend State authority in this direction until, after the lapse of a century, no instructor is more State limited than the French teacher.

In 1802, Napoleon ordered all communes to support

teachers, who, in 1808, were to be trained at the newly instituted Normal Colleges associated with the Lyceés. From 1821-27 they received their license from the Bishop of the diocese, who, in 1827, was restricted to licensing Brotherhood teachers, all others to be examined and qualified by the Rectors of the nearest Lyceées.

Activity in educational matters languished until 1833, when Guizot made many changes, amongst them being the improvement, secularization and State control of the Teacher. Any citizen possessing a certificate of capacity, after examination, might teach. The Commune was to supply a residence, a minimum salary was fixed, and a State Pension provided (Cf. England at same date). The teacher received his certificate from the Rector, who controlled the primary Normal School, every Department being compelled to maintain one, and his name was selected from a list suggested by the communal committees instituted by the Public Council.

For a time (1833-1850 circ) the pupil-teacher system was in vogue because it was economical, but this gave way to the modern class-system, thus raising the status of the Teacher. Encouragement was given by the State exempting a teacher from military service (if he had successfully passed the third-year examination at the Normal School) on his promise to teach for ten years.

By the law of 1850 (Duruy) both entrance and final exams. were abolished for assistant teachers, but the Normal Schools were brought to a high state of perfection (especially the one at Cluny), and teachers salaries were increased by law. The new Republic (1871) still further increased minimum salaries and re-organized pensions, and in 1878 gave State aid to Higher Primary Teachers. In 1882, the certificate of entrance to the Normal was made official, not clerical or local, and none but secular teachers could be employed. The age was placed at 17-21, candidates to be selected from a list furnished by the local authorities, recommended by the inspector, and appointed

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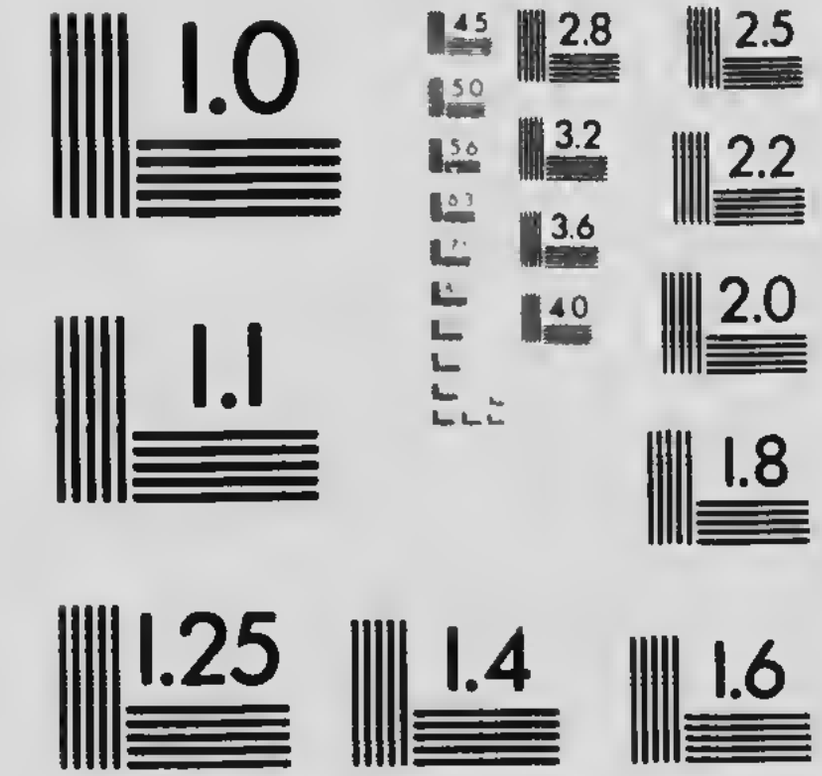

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by the Prefect of each Department. In 1889, the salary was from one to two thousand francs, with residence. Teachers are now examined by a special commission by oral and written tests of intellectual and professional fitness. The Ecole Normale student enters by a competitive examination; his training is wide, including the usual school subjects, with moral and civic instruction, physical culture and utilitarian and vocational branches. Even the teachers in private schools must have the license of the State. In spite of this, "As late as 1902 only 60 per cent. of men and 52 per cent. of women were "titularies," i.e., possessed a certificate of pedagogy. (Ency. Brit.).

In the higher ranks of the profession, all the teachers in the Lycées and in the Normal Schools are paid by the State; these must have previously taken a three years' course in an Ecole Normale Supérieure. Students must be between 16 and 18, and hold a certificate of studies. Moral and civic instruction is compulsory, as is also practice in attached schools. Practical work in the manual arts and in horticulture is also a feature and is obligatory. Board, lodging and training are furnished at the expense of the State.

Ontario.

In the year 1807, the Legislature established eight public secondary schools with a grant of $400 to each towards the teacher's salary. Each district was controlled by five trustees apointed by the Lieutenant-Governor, "to nominate a fit and discreet person as teacher, and to examine into the moral character, learning and capacity of such person, and to recommend him for appointment by the Lieutenant-Governor." The salary was to be paid half-yearly, and the rules and regulations of the school to be in the hands of the trustees. (Hodgins, Vol. I., p. 4.)

In 1815, elementary schools in every town, township and village were permitted where a suitable building, 20 children and 3 local trustees were provided. The trustees

were to examine into the moral character of applicants (who must be British subjects), and appoint the same, or dismiss for cause (Hodgins, Vol. I., p. 6), but the District Board of Education must approve of the dismissal.

In 1824, there was created a Board of Education for the whole district, while the teacher's position was limited by the necessity of procuring a certificate from at least one member of the District Board of Education. Trustees employing an unauthorized teacher forfeited the grant. (Ross, pp. 8, 9.)

The Act of 1832 superseded previous legislation for secondary schools, and permitted the erection of a school and residence for the teacher (called a District Grammar School), such teachers to be selected by the trustees and appointment confirmed by the Lieutenant-Governor. Power was given to employ two classical, one mathematical, one general, and one English master, thus anticipating the Collegate Institute. (Hodgins, Vol. I., p. 29.)

In 1841, five persons in each township or parish (Common-school Commissioners) were to appoint the teachers and regulate the school in all ways, but in 1846 city, town, and township inspectors were appointed to "examine teachers as to their moral character, learning, and ability, and to grant them certificates valid for one year" (Ross, p. 14).

The teacher's position in 1850 may be best shown by quoting from Dr. Ryerson's circulars on the new Common School Act of that date.

"This is the first step which has yet been adopted for establishing a uniform standard and system of examination of teachers throughout Upper Canada." [The new Normal and Model schools for Upper Canada were opened with great ceremony in 1852.]

"No teacher shall be appointed by the County Board unless he furnish satisfactory proof of good moral character."

"I consider this the Great Charter of Common School

teachers. . . . I know of no state where a Popular School System exists in which the rights and interests of the teacher are so effectually protected."

"The facilities for Normal School instruction to all teachers are greater than in any other country in America."

"The independence of the teacher in the school is placed beyond petty interference or individual tyranny."

"Your work is now a public profession, recognized by law, and none but a teacher examined and licensed according to law is permitted to receive a farthing of public money."

"Last year the people voluntarily taxed themselves $275,000 for salaries alone—considerably more in proportion than the amount per capita raised by the State of New York."

By 1853 the Normal School was completed and provided for, and certificates were valid over the Province, those given by the County Boards not being interfered with. In 1871 he was examined on papers set by the Council of Public Instruction at Toronto, and $4 a year was assessed on his salary towards a pension (abolished 1885). He was, however, completely under the county inspector's orders, and could teach nothing but what was State prescribed.

County Model Schools were instituted in 1877, giving a four months' course at a leading public school, in the Science and Art of Teaching: this was for certificates of the lowest grades in the common schools. The State has in Ontario dissociated the academic qualifications from the professional, the former being taken in the schools and colleges of the Province, the latter in the Model Schools, Normal Schools, or the Normal College at Hamilton, lately superseded by two "Faculties of Education" in connection with the Universities of Toronto and Queen's (Kingston).

The first State Normal School was established in Toronto in 1846, and after some vicissitudes was moved to its present quarters in St. James' Square, next to the

Provincial offices of the Education Department. Except for that at Ottawa (1877) for many years it remained the only one, and gave both intellectual and professional training. By 1909 six others had been established at suitable centres. As in other countries, the course consists of Pedagogy, Physical Culture, and Practice-teaching Observation and Criticism, a special feature (adopted from Germany) being the interim certificate necessitating one or two years' actual successful teaching in the schools before the State gives final sanction to the qualifications.

Provision was made for the training of higher teachers by selecting a few of the best secondary schools, and attaching student-teachers to them for five months for observation, practice, and lectures. In 1891 a School of Pedagogy (a Higher Normal School) was opened at Toronto for professional lectures without practice, the latter feature leading to its transference, as the Ontario Normal College, to Hamilton, with practice at the Collegiate Institute there for an eight months' course. This has now been superseded by the University Departments previously mentioned. A post-graduate course, which can be taken while actually teaching, leads to the degrees of B. Paed. and D. Paed. For these the candidate must possess a degree in Arts, with honors, and give proof of at least three years of successful teaching; he must also pass examinations in the History and Science of Teaching, and submit a thesis.

CHAPTER IV.

INSPECTION.

England.—The Education Department enunciated the principle that State aid should only be granted where its officers, the inspectors, had access. The same condition holds good to-day, the personnel, numbers and duties having changed with progressive conditions. At first the inspectors—usually clergymen—merely examined into moral teaching, hence, in 1840, arose the "concordat" between the Education Committee and the Anglican Church, by which the duties, the reports in duplicate and even the appointment of inspectors were subject to the approval of the Archbishop. While the church taxed itself so highly for its schools, this arrangement seemed fair; but increasing State grants of public money adjusted conditions through public opinion.

After 1844 the results of State expenditure of five million dollars were so unsatisfactory that inspectors were ordered "to enquire into defects, give information and advice, and assist in examining scholars, but with no authority to interfere with discipline, organization or instruction"; they also inspected the thirteen Voluntary Training Colleges of England and Scotland.

Radical changes in inspection were caused by the Code of 1861. It was now the duty of inspectors "To approve the school premises, to guarantee the certificate of the teacher, and, above all, to individually examine the children in the three R.'s." To prevent too mechanical a construction being placed on the examination ,they were warned "to judge every school by the standard hitherto used as regards its religious, moral and intellectual merits."

The Act of 1870 secularized the State "Board Schools" and laid down the regulation,—"It is no part of the duty of an inspector to examine any scholar in any religious

subject or book, or to enquire into religious instruction" (Sec. 7. (3)). Inspectors were in future to be entirely appointed by the State, a system which has at times been severely criticized, objection being taken that university men with little sympathy with elementary instruction and with limited practical experience have been chosen by the Government.

Recent changes in 1902 and 1908 have necessitated a great increase in the number of inspectors, with work enlarged in scope, especially in secondary education, but the duties of reports, advice, examination, etc., are practically the same as in 1870, and similar to those of Superintendents in the States and of Inspectors in Ontario.

It may be added that Factory Inspectors, in 1833 and 1844, were given authority to establish schools for factory children, where needed, and to inspect such schools.

The inspection is a strong point in the English system. For elementary education in England alone three were (1911) one chief inspector, 9 divisional ones, 82 inspectors and 141 sub-inspectors, also 23 women inspectors. For Wales, Scotland and Ireland, and for Training Colleges, for Technological work, and for Secondary Schools, there is a separate corps of inspectors.

Germany.

In Germany in the eighth century, schools were inspected by the clergyman and the District Superintendent. About 1820 the Provincial Boards of Education were given charge of the regular inspection of all secondary schools. The State took firmer hold when, in 1872, all inspectors were made subservient to the State, and many professional school teachers were appointed (now about one-fourth of the whole number). Paulsen remarks, "The time must come when professional secular inspectors must take all control, for the clergy have neither the time nor the training for the work." The inspector is an experienced teacher, and his work is thorough and efficient, and

includes private schools. He holds a yearly conference with the teachers in his district, and in Prussia approves plans and alterations to school buildings.

United States.

"Supervision by professional expe[illegible] both generally and locally, which has come to be we[illegible]tablished by our laws, is what distingnishes the American school system from any other national system," says President Draper. The first State Superintendent was created in New York in 1812; State after State followed, and city and county superintendents were appointed, until by 1865 there was no settled part of the country which was not inspected. The county superintendents "hold institutes, visit the schools, commend and criticize the teaching and promote the efficiency of the schools." The laws are continually giving the Superintendent larger powers and greater freedom of action and lessening interference from political quarters. The State Superintendent has unlimited authority over the examination and certificates of teachers, apportions school funds, regulates admission to and curriculum of schools, audits Normal School accounts, determines school boundaries, approves buildings, and stimulates public and professional interest by addresses, circulars, etc. This title is common to 29 States; in Massachusetts and Connecticut he is called Secretary of the State Board; in the others the name varies with similar duties. In 13 States the people elect him, in all others he is appointed by the State county officers or the combined vote of school boards. County superintendents control local education in 35 States, district in seven, modified township superintendents in the others.

France.

In France the majority of the schools are inspected by the State. In 1802 education was supervised by the prefect of each Department: three years later it was placed under

the Rectors of the newly created Lycées, with, in 1808, the supervision of the Grand Master of the University.

The reforms of Guizot in 1833 placed methods and curriculum and the examination and training of teachers under the Rector, and, better still, each Department was thoroughly supervised by a State inspector assisted by sub-inspectors.

By the clerical re-action of 1850 inspection, except of infant schools, was relaxed, but Duruy insisted on the right of the State to inspect all schools, a right which tended to wards secularization, so that in 1863 clergy were debarred from acting as inspectors.

The changes of 1886 made a system of inspection "which for its completeness is to-day unique in the civilized world," so that the Rector, the Inspector of the Academy, and a primary inspector for every 150 rural schools cover each Department thoroughly.

France is divided into seven school provinces, supervised by Inspecteurs Généraux, who inspect the Normal Schools, supervise other inspectors, and supply the State with all particulars [illegible] mary education. The Academy* inspector controls [illegible] r and primary education, the primary officers [illegible] subordinates and being appointed by examination, not nominated as in England and Canada.

Ontario.

By the Act of 1816 the trustees of common schools practically ruled teachers, curriculum and organization, no provision being made for inspection or supervision. The Act of 1841 created a Chief Superintendent, and Common School Commissioners, five in each parish or township, who were to visit each school monthly and report to the chief, who, if necessary, also visited the schools. In 1843 this position was abolished and counties were authorized to

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NOTE.—*Academy is one of the 17 educational districts of France.

appoint a county superintendent, with assistants in every city, town, and township, who should visit each school once a year and qualify teachers. Under Dr. Ryerson, clergymen of all denominations might visit and advise. In 1850 each County Inspector was limited to 100 schools with a fee of $4 for each; all inspectors having to deliver a lecture on education once a year in each school section. In 1871 County Inspectors were given $10 for each school, and the number made 50 to 100 according to the distance to be covered.

The first inspector of high schools (then called grammar schools) was appointed in 1865: at the present time there are three inspectors appointed by the Minister of Education, their duties being mainly to see that the regulations of the Department of Education are properly carried out. The inspectors of the elementary or public schools are appointed by the local authorities, by the County Councils for counties, and by the trustees in cities, to whom they give full reports of the condition of the schools in their charge. As all the details of their work (also their maximum salary) are subject to the regulations of the central authority, they are practically State officers. There are inspectors with similar duties for the Separate or Roman Catholic schools, also one inspector for continuation schools (rural public schools carrying on high school work without the buildings or equipment), one inspector for manual training, one for the normal schools, while the two faculties of Education for the training of higher teachers, being uninspected, are under the control of the Chief Superintendent for Ontario. County Inspectors must possess an honor degree, have had experience in teaching public schools, and have passed a professional examination; beside the usual duties, they conduct the leaving examinations of the public schools. It is to the Inspector that the State looks for the success of its policy or for the successful introduction of new ideas or new limitations. He is the hard worker of the system: schools must be visited at least twice

a year for one day or more, according to size; sites, buildings, sanitation, teaching ability, attendance, etc., must be certified to; disputes between trustees settled; advice given as to selection of teachers; the school library suggested or bought; new regulations studied; detailed and lengthy reports sent in; correspondence kept up; examinations conducted; papers examined and marks certified to; summer vacation (the teacher's long rest) is often his busiest period; finally, a considerable number of miles must be covered in the course of his inspectoral visits.

Chapter V.

The Curriculum.

England.—The Factory Act of 1802 laid down an elementary minimum which continued for seventy years, being extended by the Code of 1861 to State-inspected schools, making reading, writing, and arithmetic and the principles of Christianity subjects for an annual, obligatory and individual examination upon which to base the State grants. The result was natural: whatever non-paying subjects sought or had obtained a foothold were neglected in favor of the remunerative ones, leading the Committee to offer a bonus where either (a) one other specific subject was taught, or (b) where a student passed his pupil-teacher's examination (1864).

The Act of 1870 was negative. "No catechism or distinctive religious formulary must be taught." The Bible was to be read and merely explained, all other religious instruction to be given before or after school.

But the State acted also indirectly. A Royal Commission was appointed, and its recommendations in 1864 led to a greater extension of time at the Great Public Schools (Eton, Harrow, etc.) to Modern Languages, one Science, Music and Drawing were to replace too much classics. The Commission also suggested non-classical secondary schools, as well as higher education for girls.

In '67 the Education Department first recognized Science in the elementary schools, a more extended Code (1875) made obligatory the three "R's" and *one* of Geography, Grammar, Elementary Science, with permission to teach Languages, Advanced Mathematics and Advanced Science where demanded, if not to the detriment of the school. Extra grants were given to schools teaching science. In 1890 Drawing and Physical Culture were made compulsory.

Handwork was suggested in 1840, but was crowded out

by 'payment by results' in 1862; it gained ground on the Continent, especially through Froebelianism, was restored to the curriculum in 1890 and made compulsory in 1895, but the lack of trained teachers forced the government to make it permissible. A special report of 1910 shows its value per se, and as correlated with Geography, Science, etc., and ends by saying: "We consider that Handwork should be regarded as an essential feature in the curriculum of every elementary school, and that all possible means should be adopted to encourage it, although we see difficulties in the way of its being made compulsory at present."

The opening years of the twentieth century have been a revolution in English education, and circulars are numerous, especially in 1908, fixing the curriculum or suggesting methods for higher elementary schools, secondary schools and training colleges. A few interesting features is all that space will allow. "The Board of Education desires to leave freedom and wide scope to schools with regard both to the subject matter and the methods of teaching." Textbooks are selected by the teacher. In Geography, maps, physical basis, sequence of cause and effect are emphasized. The Continental system of pronouncing Latin is suggested, and the next year's report shows 550 out of 557 secondary schools using it. Observation lessons, Hygiene, Moral Instruction, frequent oral and written composition, nature study are part of the Code of 1908, while Sect. 40. d. says the curriculum "must possess special instruction bearing on the future occupations of both boys and girls." Organized games and suitable physical exercises must be given throughout the school. Girls over 15 may substitute an approved course in Domestic Science for regular Science subjects; these last quotations referring to the higher elementary schools.

In the nineteenth century the higher schools were practically all private, and their curriculum was determined by the subjects and standards of the non-State examining

bodies, namely, the College of Preceptors, the Oxford and the Cambridge Local Examining Board, etc. The State began tentatively by issuing through the Science and Art Department certificates to those who passed (mainly in evening schools) in Drawing, Science and Elementary Mathematics. Grants were next given to the higher grade town schools which included these subjects in their regular curriculum until to-day the State practically controls the curriculum in all lower grades through its State-grants and official inspection.

The curriculum as a whole is neither arranged nor adapted to a ladder of opportunity such as that of the United States or Canada. To those expecting to go out early into life, the State offers a wide range of elementary subjects, excluding the classics and the German language, but paying considerable attention to physical culture and manual arts. Secondary schools, to ensure State aid, must teach English, one foreign language, geography, history, mathematics, science and drawing. Latin can only be omitted where the Board consider the omission of advantage to the school. The Grammar Schools and the Girls' High Schools teach all the subjects required for matriculation. The continuation schools carry the elementary curriculum forward, and in addition teach commercial work, and vocational subjects adapted to the needs of the local community. They are evening schools, the important addition being instruction in "home occupations and industries."

Germany.

The more progressive States of what has for forty years been the German Empire were until 1854 "both individually and in the various territories left to themselves as regards curriculum" (Paulsen). Yet we read that in 1752 German and Science were enforced upon all Jesuit schools; that in Saxony, 1773, the chief facts of geography and ecclesiastical history, civics, agriculture, trades and

handicrafts were enjoined by an enlightened ruler. Previous to this in the primary schools of Prussia Latin was dropped, and nature study and history (from manuals) and singing were taught, the usual primary reading, writing, arithmetic and religious instruction, having been common to the schools for the last 170 years.

In the first half of the nineteenth century we find in 1812 the leaving examination reformed, demanding "a complete mastery of the classical languages," schools holding this examination to be called "Gymnasien." In 1820 Schulze extended this idea by an all-round education, which included Mathematics, Natural Science, History and two Modern Languages, but the outcry against overstrain in the schools led to a detailed order of studies in 1837.

1850—1910.

Frederick William IV. blamed the troubles of his reign upon the education of the masses, and, acting on the principle that "He who thinks too much is dangerous," he curtailed the primary curriculum (1854) to the three R's and religious instruction. At the same time Theory of Education and Psychology were omitted from the teacher's course, nor was he to be taught such advanced (?) mathematics as decimals and square root; lecturers should add nothing to the text-book. Drawing, however, was permitted once a week; a long list of hymns and Bible verses was set to be memorized. In 1856, in the Gymnasien, stress was laid on dogmatic religious instruction, and natural science was curtailed "for political reasons."

With William I. as Regent in 1858 a new era dawned for Prussia: the unity of Germany, the dominance of Prussia, the trained soldier, the patriotic citizen, the expert mechanic—all these demanded a forward and educational policy. "In 1859 the State definitely assumed the responsibility for Realschulen and drew up an official programme of studies in three grades: (a) Eight years with Latin,

(b) seven years without, and (c) six years without Latin. It is noticeable that Latin was retained because of its undeniable utility in the study of modern languages, and the principle laid down that thoroughness and a proper assimilation can only be obtained when the curriculum is definitely limited (Ware). In 1872, after the defeat of Austria, the training colleges resumed lectures in pedagogical subjects, the mathematics was made more advanced, a physical cabinet and a chemical laboratory added, and one foreign language was to be studied. In elementary schools religious memorization was curtailed, and the new aim was to be fluent German reading, the course to be widened by geometry, experimental science, drawing, singing, gymnastics and needlework. By 1859 the Realschulen had become similar in type to the Gymnasien, but while the latter prepared for the universities, whose ideals were still mainly philosophical and classical, the former were "the proper preparatory schools for all branches of technological studies." The Government, however, in 1869 compelled the universities to receive Realschulen graduates, who had already been encouraged (1859) by the reward of only one year's military service.

In 1882 an unsuccessful attempt was made to curtail Latin and Greek and give the time to moderns and science. Varying conditions led to a Conference of Teachers at Berlin (1890), presided over by the present Emperor, who voiced the public dissatisfaction with so much linguistic study. As a result the new order of studies in 1892 abolished the Latin essay for leaving certificate, lessened Latin, increased German, made shorter school hours, laid stress on gymnastics and games; on the other hand, it denied entrance to a university except to classical students.

The order of 1901 redressed the balance, making a "moderns" as well as a "classical" path to the highest education. German, History and Religious Knowledge were placed on an equal footing in all the secondary schools, classics were to be the main subjects in the Gymnasien,

science in the Oberrealschulen, and general culture in the Realschulen. English was not to be taught in the Gymnasien.

Some general remarks may be added. It is only in the last fifteen years that studies for girls have been decreed. In all the schools the State prescribes the course and the number of teaching periods, but the teacher is left a freer hand to modify these in amount and method than his professional confrère in France. Important features are the absence of conflicting examinations, the common standard of promotion, the reward of exemption from military service, the regular prescription of religious instruction in all schools.

The State has also proceeded upon pedagogical principles, the junior years having practically the same course in all schools, such subjects as Greek and English being postponed to later years; then, too, the whole programme is devoted to general progress along all lines in a definite course, no special personal aptitudes or predilections being catered for, this being only considered necessary in the continuation schools where German, Arithmetic and Drawing are compulsory subjects, but are to be adapted to local trade conditions.

United States.

As in other branches there is general unanimity and local control in essentials with every variety of State legislation in minor details, the tendency being towards centralization and expert control. In early times the curriculum was merely formal and was drawn up by the local school committee who made it obligatory in their area. Nowadays it is usually formulated by the County Superintendent or by County or Local Special Boards. "State prescription occurs in the laws of most of the commonwealths, physiology and hygiene as related to the influence of stimulants and narcotics being compulsory in all." A by no means un-

common law is that requiring all teaching to be in English, permission being extended to teaching in a foreign language only if it does not interfere with the learning of English (Dutton and Snedden, p. 323)—a contrast to the Bi-lingual Schools of Ontario. In Maryland only are certain schools allowed to be taught exclusively in German. In Indiana if the guardians of 25 pupils demand it, the instruction must be in German. The compulsory school laws of New York and Ohio indirectly specify elementary subjects; Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, Vermont and California limit subjects by law. In Indiana the "Haworth Case" gave the State Legislature power to prescribe courses of study. Certain States prescribe special additions: Georgia (agriculture and civics), South Dakota (United States history and civics), Texas (composition), Wyoming (humane treatment of animals).

"There is no semblance of national control over the course of study in secondary schools. There are few States, if any, where the course is prescribed by State authority, the matter being left to municipal or district boards (Brown)." In practice, however, a prescriptive minimum consisting of one foreign language, algebra, geometry, a science, and one year of history is common to all the States, a condition which one writer considers is due partly to co-education. In 15 States the Board or the Superintendent or the laws prescribe the full course; in eight a minimum is prescribed; in Pennsylvania all high schools receiving State aid must provide for the full High School course.

The rapid increase of High Schools and the increasing number of subjects, combined with the diversity in stress or in attainments and in college entrance requirements, led to the appointment of a "Committee of Ten," through whose report the High School course throughout the States has been greatly unified, and intensive study of a few subjects for one year introduced.

The course in Normal Schools has been modified through

the increased study of the French and German systems and need not be detailed here. (See Chap. III.)

The most striking feature of the American curriculum, and one which differentiates it from that of Germany, France or England is the freedom of choice of subjects allowed to students in secondary education. So liberal is this that "many of the high schools think of their courses in terms of options rather than of requirements. (Perry, School Administration, p. 223.) The school offers every subject and permits the pupil to select enough of these to make up a total of so many periods per week, or else offers several groups of allied subjects from which one or two must be selected, usually, however, in languages or science. The conflict between the classics and science, and the modern tendency towards technical education, has led to the high school curriculum being so modified that schools can almost be classified into classical, general and technical, in which the first lays emphasis on the classics, the second on science, and the third adds certain technical subjects. A distinction must be drawn between the manual training high schools, whose curriculum is not of a vocational nature, and the technical high school designed to instruct pupils in the fundamental processes and problems of industrial life.

France.

The curriculum is completely subject to the central authorities, not only as to subjects but as to the amount to be taken, the order and method of treatment, etc. A rigid State examination system checks any deviation. As a student at Paris thirty years ago I can testify to the rigidity of system, formality of teaching, and routine at that time. Of late years the same tendencies appear as in Canada and the United States; the formal study of the classics has given place to the study of their history and literature, while optional subjects and elective courses appear in the higher classes. The special secondary courses were thus modified by the State to enable them to compete with private secondary schools.

France, moreover, has organized her curriculum on the psychological assumption that the future man can be already discerned in the child, on the social basis that it is wise for the State to restrict its citizens to the class and occupation of their parents, and on strength of incentive by reducing service in the army to one year for those who have taken the baccalauréat.

In 1808 Napoleon marked out the usual elementary subjects in his communal schools, including moral instruction and patriotism. In his Lycées mathematics, mechanics and physics were taught with a view, probably, to furnishing future military engineers.

The reforms of Guizot, 1833, placed the three "R's," grammar and religious instruction on the primary time-table, and for the new higher primary schools, Geometry, Surveying, Drawing, Physics, Singing and the History and Geography of France. A "certificate of studies" exempted from further attendance those passing an examination in dictation, arithmetic, French and in either agriculture, drawing or needlework.

The efforts of Duruy (1850 seq.) were directed towards special training, where needed, towards the future occupation of the student, and a certain utilitarianism in primary work, admitted as necessary even by such a champion of classicism as Fouillée (p. 55), has marked most of the French system. It has invaded the higher primary schools and is supreme in the practical and commercial schools.

In the first-named the first year's course is general, with no classics, but with Agriculture, Horticulture, Hygiene and Political Economy. In the second and third year the prospective farmer omits modern languages, the future business man agriculture, and the future mechanic both subjects.

In the practical schools ,moral instruction, agriculture, gymnastics and singing are omitted by all students; the industrial course includes manual training, which is omitted by commercial students, who take modern languages in-

stead. It is interesting to compare this with the German secondary school, where 19 units are given to religious training and 72 to modern languages for all non-classical students. The leaving certificate of these schools carries no special privileges with it. In 1897 the State was led by the growing evil of absinthe drinking to include moral lessons (especially in temperance) in the elementary schools, and this subject was extended to the Lycées in 1902. The curriculum of the Normal Schools and Model Schools is, as in other countries, a reflection of the subjects needed by the profession both in theory and practice.

Ontario.

The earliest curriculum from 1816 was practically delimited by public opinion as expressed by the Loyalist immigrants from the Eastern American colonies, and comprised the three "R's" with British History and Geography and considerable attention to Spelling. From 1850—1876 no change was made, except that the State as represented in the Council of Public Instruction took charge of the curriculum, that of the secondary schools being determined by the requirements of the Universities, but being also under the control of the Council, through Act of Parliament (1853), the said curriculum to provide "Instruction in the higher branches of a practical English and commercial education, including the elements of natural philosophy and mechanics and also of the Latin and Greek languages and mathematics." (Hodgins.) In 1871 French and German were added to the course, and high schools with four specially qualified teachers were to be called "Collegiate Institutes." Since then examination changes have caused progressive addition, mainly in the experimental science group, while manual training, including carpentry, metal work and drafting may be furnished by the trustees· art and nature study have been made obligatory in the junior classes, and increasing stress has been placed on drill and

physical culture. Since 1876 every detail of the curriculum for Public Schools, High Schools, Normal Schools, has been strictly laid down by the Education Department at Toronto by circulars issued by authority of the Minister of Education, and enforced to the letter by the corps of inspectors in its employ. For Public schools, in 1911 the courses were amended and consolidated and now comprise about 50 pages of detail.

(1) *Obligatory.*—Reading, Literature, Composition, Spelling, Grammar, Geography, History, Writing, Arithmetic, Mensuration, Physiology, Hygiene, Physical Culture, Vocal Music (if the teacher is competent).

Forms I.—IV., Art and Nature Study where two or more teachers.

Form V., either Art, Elementary Science and Agriculture, *or* Bookkeeping and Business Papers.

(2) *Optional.*—Sewing, Cookery and Manual Training where possible.

Latin, Greek, French and German similar to the first two years of the High School, where competent teachers are employed. It must be remembered that pupils must pass leaving examinations of the Public School before they can enter the High School, but the optional subjects mentioned, together with latitude granted by the Inspector (where he is satisfied with conditions) to teach more advanced science and mathematics have caused a number of continuation schools which are practically doing High School work, and sending up pupils for secondary examinations.

The two Faculties of Education at Kingston and Toronto are not inspected and are free to develop their curriculum in the best interests of the students-in-training.

Chapter VI.

TEXTBOOKS.

England.—No State prescription or State control of either textbooks, their publication or contract price.

Germany.

The method of selecting textbooks varies in different Provinces, sometimes being in the hands of the local authorities, in other cases the Minister of Instruction has the sole right to authorize textbooks. The Provincial School Board may in some cases permit a new book recommended (with reasons stated) by the principal and staff. The textbook does not play such a leading part in the classroom as it does in other countries.

United States.

Almost every State has passed laws affecting the quality and selling price of its textbooks, which are generally selected by a Commission and adopted by compulsory laws. The increasing amount of supplementary reading has, however, somewhat modified the rigidity which naturally followed the adoption of a single textbook. The old arrangement was for directors and teachers to meet and select books to be used in the following school year. In New York the Boards of Education select and adopt the books; in fact "compulsory uniformity of texbooks has come to be the rule in all States to some degree." (Dutton and Snedden, p. 211.) Many Western and some Southern States have adopted State uniformity; California publishes its own books

In most States a Textbook Commission (sometimes with the Governor at its head) comprises the Superintendent of Public Instruction and several educational experts, such as the President of the State University or of the Normal

School, and three or more experienced teachers. In Kansas and Oregon expert qualifications are not necessary. State uniformity in selection involves the regulation of the price, and business contracts of this kind are made in the South and West.

Of late years the question has arisen of supplying free textbooks; Philadelphia did so as far back as 1818; this is obligatory for elementary education in 12 States; in 14 others it is optional by a district vote; in 8, poor children must be so supplied. Minnesota and North Carolina have discontinued the State system. Dr. Harris states that in the United States textbook instruction has predominated over oral more than in any other country. Mr. Jenks sums up the situation as follows: Adoption and contract (14), county uniformity (6), optional county (2), State Textbook Board (12), free throughout State (4), free by popular vote (5), State contract with publishers (6), sold at cost to pupils (3).

In most States special or general laws give cities the control of the details of school administration, including textbooks.

France.

The only references I have been able to find are that in 1882 freedom to supply free textbooks locally was granted, while in 1900, subject to the approval of the rector, the textbooks for a department are selected by a special committee of educationalists in a manner similar to the average system in the United States.

Ontario.

In 1816 the trustees were to select books with the approval of the District Board, which had to distribute a State grant of $400 towards this object. In 1841 the school commissioners assumed the responsibility, while the Act of 1846 ordered the Chief Superintendent to provide uniform and

approved textbooks in all forms with the help of the Board of Education. From 1850—1876 this duty devolved on the Council of Public Instruction, taken over in its turn by the Education Department. The regulations of 1910 are minute and mandatory. All primary and secondary textbooks (except the texts in classics and in modern languages, and books of the Faculty of Education or Honor Matriculation) are strictly authorized, certain publishing firms having a monopoly of the same under agreement as to wholesale and retail prices, the grant being withheld if unauthorized books are used. By this means prices have been considerably reduced, but the frequent changes have made the cost about the same to the parents.

Chapter VII.

Religious Instruction.

England.—In no country has the question of religious instruction played such a conspicuous part in the growth of State control as in England. For three-quarters of a century it blocked all progress, and even to-day there is no unanimous agreement as to its proper relation to the schools.

The religious controversy became acute in the elementary schools chiefly through the rivalry of Lancaster and Bell, which led to two bodies of school supporting societies with different dogmatic principles. One hundred years ago the Lords threw out a Parish School Bill because "it did not place education upon a religious basis." Brougham in 1820 tried to pass a bill prohibiting the teaching of religious formularies, and enjoining the study of the Bible without sectarian comment, but the Dissenters opposed this so fiercely that it was lost. Even before 1847 State aid was confined to Church of England schools or to non-Anglican Schools giving simple Bible teaching. By a minute of 1847 schools were freed from enquiry concerning their religious condition, and State aid was extended to Wesleyan and Roman Catholic Schools (Ency. Brit., 11th edn.). The principle was definitely accepted by the Act of 1870, "No parliamentary grant shall be made in respect of any religious instruction," while the famous Cowper-Temple clause runs: "No religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination shall be taught in the school. In S. 74 of the same Act no time of attendance fixed by the School Board shall prevent a child from withdrawing for religious instruction or for any religious service. In the bill of 1902 the Kenyon-Slaney clause, referring to schools previously built and supported by denominational bodies, makes the religious instruction to be in accordance with the provisions of the trust-deed,

but also under control of the managers as a whole, and not under that of the clergyman or priest. As extended to Scotland, Mr. Sadler states, "Practically all school boards make the Bible and the Shorter Catechism the basis of their religious instruction."

Germany.

Religious instruction of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries now appears as *moral* instruction in the curriculum of both primary and secondary schools, with a definite amount of time accorded by the State. The evolution of the question can be best shown by a few extracts, mainly from Paulsen.

By a rescript of Frederick William I. in 1717 all children were to stay at school until well versed in the principles of Christianity. By the end of the eighteenth century the teaching of church dogma had been abandoned. "Not only in secondary schools, but even in primary, denominational religious instruction had either lost its leading position, or at least had been compelled to make room by its side for secular subjects. Section 24 of the Constitution says: "In the organization of elementary schools, questions of religious creed should receive the most serious consideration, the direction of religious instruction being a *right* devolving upon the respective religious communities." After 1872 the State furthered the development of undenominational schools (as in England), and while the most recent ordinances do not reject the teaching of dogma in the schools, yet, to quote Paulsen again, "In the schools, it is true, religious instruction is still controlled by the Church . . . but it has come to be strict', limited in scope as one subject amongst others. In many cases it has come to be regarded as an outside subject . . . whose abolition is only a question of time" (p. 272).

It must be remembered that the readers in German schools contain far more religious matter than we find in

those of other countries; that the Church is not averse to religious or, at least, moral instruction, but that, although the curriculum assigns two or three periods to the subject, teachers in Germany aver that the subject of morality cannot be taught, hence two recent movements, one in Hamburg to teach morals through art and poetry, another in Bremen requesting the Government to drop the subject from the curriculum.

United States.

While there is no complete uniformity on the subject the general feeling is that where public taxes are used for the education of all-comers, they should not be diverted for sectarian purposes, hence religious instruction is not allowed in the public schools and none is prescribed. A recent report gives out that about half the schools have Bible reading as an opening exercise and that, while 21 States prohibit the diversion of money for sectarian purposes, 23 have the question optional.

France.

The question of religious instruction in France is naturally closely connected with the kaleidoscopic changes in the political situation of Church and State during the years following the Revolution; at times clericalism has been triumphant, but the tendency has been steadily towards non-sectarianism and formalism. Napoleon's decree of 1808 made the precepts of the Catholic religion the basis of the teaching. The Codes of 1833 and of 1850 declare that primary instruction includes, of necessity, moral and religious instruction, meaning by the latter, catechism and sacred history. By the secularization of the schools in 1883 moral and civic teaching replaced religious instruction, allowing one day a week to the latter, but *outside the school buildings.* (Ferry.) The reformer, however, expressly states that his object was to establish "De bonnes frontières entre

l'école et l'Eglise." Hence the teacher, while observing strict neutrality, is to teach the child "that his just duty to God is to obey His laws as revealed to him by conscience and reason."

Fouillée had stated that in fifty years crime had increased three-fold amongst the young, and the recent sociological discussion of conditions causing what is called a "social solidarity" movement has caused the government to extend moral instruction (1897) to the secondary schools and to lay more stress upon it in the Normal colleges. It is noticeable, however, that the Lycées still retain their chaplains. A recent German critic remarks: "In Roman Catholic France a national State school could not be secured at any other price than the exclusion of the religious element, so that the cult of patriotism has supplanted in a measure that of religion." In the communal schools of today the teaching is purely secular.

Ontario.

In Governor Simcoe's charge to the Legislature on the foundation of schools, he enjoins that "morality and religion be fostered," an aim which was strongly supported from different points of view by Bishop Strachan and by Dr. Ryerson. In the early days of the Public School system no course was prescribed or rules laid down, but since 1846 it has been urged in the regulations on the course of studies that the teacher by precept and example and by utilizing the lessons of literature or history should inculcate the principles of morals. Since 1850 the Department has recommended that all schools be opened and closed with the reading of Scripture (without comment) and by prayer, preferably the Lord's Prayer, and this, so far as the opening is concerned, is almost the universal custom in both the primary and secondary schools. The Act of 1843 provided that "no child shall be required to read or study in or from any religious book, or to join in any exercise of devotion or

religion which shall be objected to by his or her parents or guardians." Selections of the Scriptures have been authorized for reading in schools, but have not met with universal acceptance. To quote Sir G. W. Ross: "To make it obligatory for teachers to conduct religious instruction of any kind might be to impose a burdne upon their conscience, which no State authority has a right to impose. To authorize them, if they were so inclined, to explain the Scriptures might lead to the propagation of dogmas incompatible with their usefulness as teachers, and involving departmental responsibility inconsistent with a popular system of education" (p. 136). Permission was given to all denominations to use the schoolhouse at least once a week after the afternoon session for religious teaching.

It must be remembered that in Ontario, Quebec, Manitoba and Saskatchewan Separate Schools are allowed which, though under Government inspection, are free as regards their religious instruction. In Manitoba it is noticeable that the grading of schools must not be interfered with by any separation to suit religious denominations, but if 40 Roman Catholic families are in the town or 25 in the village one teacher must be a Roman Catholic. (See Sadler, Vol. II.)

Chapter VIII.

VOCATIONAL.

England.—The State has acted slowly and is still behind other countries in assistance to technical instruction: in fact, whatever help and legislation have been directed to this object belong to the last two decades. Although a parliamentary grant of $7,500 was made as early as 1836 for a Normal School of Design, it was not until after the Great Exhibition of 1851 that definite measures were taken to stem the tide of foreign competition. In that year a School of Mines and Applied Arts was established (called, since 1890, the Royal College of Science) and local evening classes begun under a body known for half a century as the Science and Art Department. It was the policy of the Government to foster technical education by grants through this Department first to such Grammar Schools (secondary) as should encourage the teaching of science and art and send pupils in for examination; second, to higher grade schools making similar provision; third, to Mechanics' Institutes which provided facilities for evening classes in art, science and mathematics and sent in pupils for the Departmental examinations, the instruction to be in charge of specialists with State certificates. The writer can personally testify to the thoroughness of the teaching in the early 80's, but the subjects were handled in a scholastic rather than in a practical way. In 1856 the Science and Art Department became a section of the Board of Education, and in 1899 the State, recognizing the growing disadvantages of a dual direction of the schools, merged the two authorities.

In 1889 the important Technical Institutions Act (amended 1891) gave local authorities, i.e., County and Town Councils, power to levy rates in aid of technical and manual instruction, such taxes being aided by a State grant from the Customs and Excise. At the same time a Board

of Agriculture was formed and a grant given in aid of teaching that subject. That the aim was not distinctly vocational is shown by one of the clauses of the Act, "Technical instruction consists of teaching in the principles of science and art applicable to industries . . . it shall not include the teaching of the practice of any trade or industry or employment." We see here the influence of visits to the Prussian schools, where the best training in foundations is sought, as against the appeal of Ruskin (in 1860 and subsequent years), who argued for State-established schools where the child should be taught "his calling in life."

The workman of to-day is provided for by technical day schools, trade schools, continuation schools, and evening technical classes, but except in the last-named there is little attempt at trade specialization, nor has the Government as yet organized its whole system, while the essential principle of compulsory attendance, in force in Scotland and Germany, has been recommended by a commission, but not fully acted upon. The State, through the Inspectors of the Board of Education, keeps in touch with and promotes the aim of all technical schools and classes.

Germany.

Education in the German States is free from imperial control, but, with the possible exception of Munich, Prussia has the best-organized and most complete system of technical instruction of any of the federal units, and indeed of the educational world. The first Technical High School dates as far back as 1745, but it was not until a century later that great activity in this direction, mainly through State aid and supervision, widely extended the system. Prussia has twenty-four "Royal" technical schools under State control, several of them being textile schools, although not placed in textile manufacturing districts. The rapid success of the Prussian system is due to the recognition of

inferiority at the Exhibition of 1851, to the outburst of national enthusiasm after the Franco-Prussian war of 1870, to the natural tendency of the German to mercantile and industrial pursuits owing to the poor soil of the country, and, above all, to the recognition of the principle that to elevate conditions, the higher technical branches and prolonged scientific research are more important than primary vocational training. The fact that a boy's career is usually marked out for him early in life, and that Germany has a complete system of schools for every calling prevents the educational waste which is so marked a feature of the countries.

The higher technical schools are practically branch universities, the entrance age being 17 or 18 and a leaving certificate from a secondary school being necessary; but all premature specialization is discouraged (Sadler) and the principle acted upon is the survival of the fittest and the elimination of the unfit. Encouragement is given to those taking the secondary course by granting exemption of one year's military training for those who have completed a six years' course in the Real or Ober-Real Schulen, and at the present day "practically every German town is equipped with technical schools."

Nor is provision for lower grades less perfect or comprehensive. Prof. Loudon says: "The technical system of Germany covers the whole field of industry and commerce. It distinguishes between the training of the director, the foreman, and the operative." Although the building and its maintenance is left to municipal authorities, Prussia contributes from 40 to 50 per cent. of the cost of instruction from State funds, and her continuation schools are models for other countries, placed directly under the control of the Minister of Trade and Commerce. Attendance up to 18 is compulsory for both boys and girls in Prussia in two districts by State [illegible]; in the others by local by-law; in the other German [illegible]s it is usually compulsory, "the laws on this subject [illegible]oming yearly more exacting" (Seath).

It is noticeable that the order in Prussia was enforced by Imperial Edict in 1891, one of the few instances of Imperial restriction in education. Since 1909 in Wurtemberg an industrial or commercial school must be established in communities where at least forty workmen under eighteen are employed. Over these schools while there is no organized supervision the State inspector has considerable influence. For only a portion of these schools the report of 1905 shows a State expenditure of $1,360,000. The main feature of the continuation schools is the combination of theory with practice without neglecting the important elements of culture and citizenship, while the difficulty of supplying teachers has been met by State-aided short courses for those intended for technical instructors. For those who aspire to be foremen or small manufacturers there is a system of middle schools, the higher trade schools held mainly in the evenings, and supplemented in 48 centres by travelling courses partly State-aided.

United States.

Although from the days of Washington onward there has been increasing discussion and public interest in industrial, scientific and vocational training, yet, with the exception of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and of some State Colleges of Agriculture, little has been done by State enterprise, the success achieved being due largely to private philanthropy or to local effort. America's wealthy citizens having contributed to this purpose with a generosity to be envied by other nations. Some of these institutions passed subsequently into public control, and the example set has been followed by the wealthier municipalities, especially in the last thirty years, so that it will not be long before the United States can boast, like Germany, that provision has been made for the training of its workers in all grades of skilled industry.

The first Act of importance recognized the need of agri-

cultural training: in 1862 the Morrill Act granted to each State 30,000 acres of State lands for each Senator or State Representative, to be used for founding a College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, the State to prescribe the manner of distribution. In 1887 a perpetual endowment of $15,000 per annum was granted for experimental work in these agricultural colleges. Vocational subjects are naturally the main feature of all reformatory or delinquent schools. In ten States where the University or State College is almost entirely supported by State and national funds, higher industrial training through advanced scientific instruction, especially in engineering, is well provided for.

Since 1890 the introduction of manual training (and in some cases of domestic science) has been widely extended in the Grammar or Public Schools, while Manual Training and Technical High Schools have in some cases been established, particularly in the East. The general tendency, however, is to add these departments to an existing High School as an elective course, so that naturally they are not directly vocational, but deal rather with the formation of manual dexterity and the study of fundamental processes and problems.

About 20 trade schools have been established municipally since 1881 to directly train apprentices and eliminate economical waste; several Intermediate Industrial Schools in the Eastern States prepare for entrance to trades, and the number is likely to increase; the Munich system of part-time schools has been successfully applied since 1900 in a few localities, but the whole consideration of the matter seems to be in the experimental stage.

The relation of State control of recent years is shown in a recent report of Dr. Seath (Superintendent of Education for Ontario). He says: "That there is a marked trend of public opinion in the direction of industrial education at the public expense is clear from legislative enactments by

various States. Probably the most advanced and suggestive Acts have been passed by the Wisconsin, Massachusetts and New York Legislatures" (p. 194). In Wisconsin the Act provides for a special annual assessment, if necessary by municipal vote, to be controlled by the School Board for Trade Schools, with the object of providing skilled workmen. A State Mining Trade School has been established, and State aid, equal to half the local expenditure, is given to manual training classes in High Schools.

Massachusetts, "with the co-operation and consent of the municipalities concerned," establishes independent Industrial Schools under the control of the State Board of Education.

New York provides State grants for three classes of Industrial Schools under the control of School Boards assisted by Advisory Committees of five members "representing the local trades, industries and occupations," for all children over fourteen who have completed the elementary school course.

The report of the Massachusetts Commission (1906) has been and will be a powerful factor in directing public enterprise in all the States towards industrial training: it recommends vocational training in both High and Public Schools, and evening classes for apprentices up to 18 years of age, in which, while culture is not to be neglected, the application of principles to practice shall be emphasized.

That there is a persistent and growing demand for vocational training is shown by the phenomenal success of several correspondence colleges, which have supplied that demand, but the difficulty of finding practical teachers, of supplying suitable textbooks, the immense cost of equipment and maintenance, and the absence of legislation enforcing attendance, have prevented up to the present anything more than sporadic efforts to educate the nation industrially.

France.

Education for young people and adults had been proposed in the legislation of the convention of 1792, but its progress followed the vicissitudes of political changes and revolutions; so that it is not until 1863 that we read of a fixed Government grant of 2,000 francs towards this branch of education. Under Victor Duruy such a change came that just before the war of 1870 we have 30,000 classes with an attendance of 8,000,000. "The Third Republic," to quote Dr. Sadler, "paid special attention to primary education, and since the peace (of 1871) and the resumption of social life, laws and decrees have followed one another, efforts have been multiplied . . . and the work has continued to extend rapidly."

In France free and (since 1882) compulsory public elementary education ends with the obtaining of the "Certificat d'études primaire," generally between 12 and 13, but sometimes earlier. So far, although public opinion is strongly in favor of State compulsion after that age, no steps have been taken. The need of instruction compelled private initiative, so that up to 1880 we have a number of educational societies, of which the best known are the Ligne d'Enseignment, the Universités Populaires, and the Ecole Polytechnique, giving continuation and technical classes all over France. Previous to 1895, permission to open such classes (including length and frequency) was conferred by the central authority, but now, with the consent of the Mayor, Prefect and Inspector, anyone may open a school. Experience showed the need of organizations, and the Acts of 1884 and 1895 recognized (a) Cours Complémentaires or real continuation of primary work, with attention to industrial drawing, stenography, household science and agriculture, and (b) Ecoles Professionelles, or Technical Schools, State supported, which have so far been disappointing, on the ground that the instruction is too academic and not practical enough. For industrial workers there are trade schools in the day and cours techniques

in the evening, "special practical work being taken up, often on Sundays, in the shops of the trade schools." As in the general system of France, the Minister of Public Instruction is autocratic and the State organizes these to the smallest detail. The State also subsidizes the work of the societies with a grant of 350,000 francs, but the cost of all higher technical instruction is entirely borne by the State, except that Paris pays for its own trade schools, cities over 150,000 pay about half the cost, those with a smaller population less than half. Considerable provision has been made for commercial training, the State maintaining 39 Practical Schools of Commerce and Industry for boys and 14 for girls, also 15 Higher Schools of Commerce; the keystone of the arch is the National Conservatory of Arts and Trades at Paris, containing an industrial museum and laboratories for advanced research; lectures are given free by scientists of national reputation, and all costs are borne by the State.

Except at Paris, where the teachers are selected by competitive examination and are of unusual ability, the great drawback is the scarcity of qualified instructors, while adequate subsidies have not been granted by the State, but the present condition will doubtless be modified by compulsory attendance, by State-trained teachers, and by generous State grants demanded by the conditions of European industrial rivalry. Even now, as a whole, "The industrial schools constitute a fairly comprehensive system, and as the range and amount of State grants are continually increasing, these schools are coming more and more under the central control with a corresponding increase in their efficiency." (Seath.)

Ontario.

The public pays for its Public Schools, the Government aids primary and secondary education by proportionate grants and gives generous aid to university and higher education. The statistics of 1909-10 show legislative grants of

about $870,000, nearly one-fourth of which goes to the Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph, about one-half to assist improvement in agriculture, both theoretical and practical, including the Faculty of Forestry at the University of Toronto, the balance going to Practical Science and Engineering Colleges, Trade Schools, Art Schools, and to the teaching of Manual Training and Domestic Science in the primary and secondary schools of the Province $27,000).

The Manual Training and Art courses in both Public and High Schools are not vocational but cultural; in the secondary schools three courses are elective, Household Science, Commercial and Agricultural; they are also permissive, at option of the School Board, provided that equipment and maintenance is satisfactory to the Government authorities, with the result that only the wealthier communities have furnished facilities.

As in the States, private munificence has blazed the way; in 1900 Household Science Schools were built at Toronto and Hamilton, and Manual Training centres supported at Brockville, Ottawa and Toronto. Yet in ten years out of 279 urban school districts only 21 had taken up household science and 26 manual training, although "liberal grants had been offered by the Department of Education." Hence the Superintendent of Education writes: "Of technical education in the limited sense of the term we have none in our Public and High Schools, nor have we industrial education in the sense of preparation for the trades, except in the Toronto and the Hamilton Technical Schools, and, to a very limited extent, in a few of the other High Schools" (p. 267); further, in discussing the leakage of school attendance in the adolescent period, he states: "For the pupil who is going to take up some industrial occupatic our school system provides no course which he or his parents recognize as bearing adequately on his future."

The Government has, however, since 1908 provided a

three months' special course, or a year's course in manual training at the Macdonald Institute at Guelph; it has gone still further in its assistance to agriculture, more than a dozen graduates (State-paid) in that branch having been attached to the staff of selected high schools, to give courses in elementary agriculture; grants have also been made for school gardens in rural districts. Evening classes of an industrial character are held in ten centres only, "the movement being still in its infancy." As was natural, voluntary agencies have attempted to meet the deficiency, and so we have the great railways with classes (compulsory) for their apprentices, the Mining School at Kingston (assisted by State funds), the evening classes of the Young Men's Christian Association, and American and Canadian correspondence classes, the former technical, the latter commercial.

The only vocational school in Ontario is the Canadian Horological Institute, which receives no State assistance.

For those who intend to direct and control industrial plants Ontario has made ample provision in the Faculty of Applied Science and Engineering at Toronto University, a four years' course in principles followed by proof of three years' actual practice earning the degree of B.A.Sc. Reports show that its graduates (of which 65 per cent. have remained in Ontario) are engaged in directing 45 different industries; its chief weakness lies in the lack of practice shops as in the Technological Institutes of Great Britain and the United States.

Future development will probably be rapid. In 1909 the Ontario Government commissioned its Chief Superintendent to visit and report on technical education in European and American schools. The next year the Federal Government appointed a Royal Commission to gather material from industrial sources as well as educational. This may lead to federal action by State appropriations, thus widening the whole field as a national and not merely a Provincial enterprise, and lightening the financial burden.

Chapter IX.

REVIEW.

The consideration of the objections which have been urged against, the advantages which have been claimed for, and the work of State control during the last eight or nine decades in more or less centralized State systems, leaves us in a position to view the matter as a whole and to draw some conclusions.

Historically considered, we notice at once that the changed attitude of society points to an increasing measure of State control. The social conscience of each State has been aroused to the needs of each unit of the nation. The mistake has too often been made of separating education from the social consciousness and social life. However haltingly and blindly society may stumble along the path of progress, yet the nation is conscious of seeking in a general way for its summum bonum, of which education must ever form the greater proportion. In the past, education has been looked upon as an episode in the life of the child, necessary and generally unpleasant, to be experienced before entering upon a greater world, in which new methods, new standards and new principles would have to be learnt, for, except in the highest stratum of professional training and in the lowest for the ranks of labor (in which a few figures and the ability to read badly were inculcated) correlation of school life with the subsequent life of the middle classes and of the masses was hardly dreamt of. The Greek training for active and intelligent citizenship, and the Roman for law, order and obedience, had passed away. In the Middle Ages, under Church domination, education meant little more than the prospect of advancement under the Roman See. Then came the Renaissance, and man was awakened with a trumpet-call to the exercise of his personal liberty, and to his right as a man in the body

politic. Under the literary enthusiasm of that moment, while it is true that, coupled with Reformation principles, education of the masses in the vernacular was begun, yet in the schools founded in the period education fell back too strongly on the classics, and soon the dry formalism of logic and grammar cultivated as a discipline of the mind placed the curriculum out of touch with the needs of the people, while such advantages as education possessed were limited to the upper classes, to the middle class burghers, or to a small number of protégees gifted with unusual ability. Denied access to higher interests and feelings through the expansion of their intelligence, the masses were sunk in ignorance, cruelty, brutality and apathy.

Private philanthropy, as in other fields, so in education, has blazed the way for regeneration through higher action. But philanthropy has its limits, it needs a greater force than local, sporadic or financially limited efforts to cope with the evils of illiteracy. Much had it done, and great is the debt of the nations to those inspired and energetic souls who sought to awaken the people to the needs of the ignorant and the neglected; a more powerful force however, with greater resources was needed to raise the structure of a State system such as that enjoyed by leading nations to-day.

For the attitude of the social consciousness had changed. Before, it was a question of getting education if you could afford it, or if supplied by sporadic philanthropy, nor was there any conscious ideal or aim in educational matters; now it became a question of giving education *as a necessity of the race*, as a privilege of the individual, as a gift of common humanity, as a national asset. But such an ideal is useless unless properly organized and efficiently carried out, hence efficiency, having become the watchword of modern endeavor, its development, with the attendant expense, has shifted the burden from the shoulders of the Church or of private individuals to those of the State. As

we have seen in Part I., the State can force progress upon the unprogressive, modify the environment by compulsion, standardize the instruction, promote the status of the teacher, provide general facilities which would otherwise have had to be supplied by private channels, enforce a common ideal upon the nation. We see then, that when society transferred the supervision of education to the State it created a re-action upon organization, training and national ideals. From the standpoint of national welfare upon the success or failure of the measures State control must stand or fall. From the standpoint of national welfare, the State, which at first tended merely to provide facilities for free elementary education, has come to a position where, from the same standpoint, it must furnish an educational minimum within certain age limits. As soon as some general form as to standards, facilities and limits became necessary through public opinion and demand, the State, being the only efficient national force available, simply had to assume the burden of education.

And what has this force accomplished? We may, I think, predicate the following general results:

(1) It has located within reach of every child a properly equipped schoolhouse.

(2) It has furnished an outlet for natural ability, free in elementary stages.

(3) It has provided, in the main, efficient control in the shape of proper inspection.

(4) It has steadily promoted the efficiency and status of the teacher.

(5) It has considerably diminished sectarian prejudice in elementary education.

(6) It has prevented waste of money and effort by substituting system, standards and co-ordination.

(7) It has extended the opportunities of education to the kindergarten, to women, to the hand and the eye, to provision for the vocations of life.

The task of the twentieth century will be to elaborate and co-ordinate the three principal movements of the last half of the nineteenth. From 1840—1890 free elementary State systems were established; from 1890—1910 criticism and adjustment were rife in secondary education; in the past decade the important question of vocational training has arisen, while the same period stands out as a time of experiment and reconstruction, leaving educational matters in a state of flux, although possessing certain general tendencies which will become homogenized and organized in the near future.

It is interesting to observe, when comparing State systems, how these, so divergent half a century ago, have been approximating one general type. Although imitation of the Prussian system and methods may account for a certain proportion of this, the cause, I think, is more deeply seated, and may reasonably be attributed to the fact that each system has been gradually adapted to the needs of our common humanity and has thus come to bear the common features of that humanity. The mind and activities of the child, the need of training hand and eye, the need of a trained intelligence in the affairs of life, the need of adaptation to environment, although not new, yet through the complexity and competition of modern society, have received emphasis which does not differ widely in the case of an English, a German, or an American citizen. Hence the working out of provision for these needs and activities through the common basis of psychology has produced a similarity which ought not to surprise us.

Much, however, as State control has done, is doing, or seems likely to achieve in the future, its success or failure will depend largely upon its emphasis on the spirit and not on the letter of education. In the complicated machinery of inspection, statistics, and reports there is danger of the whole system being lifeless, of being measured by percentages, or of being made to conform rigidly to petty

rules. Progressive measures must be demanded from the State, for government, except under fear of expulsion, moves slowly, and the equipment and provision so satisfactory to-day may be totally inadequate five or ten years hence. Further, the boon of education to the masses has caused of which it is hardly a social upheaval the full significance of which it is hardly possible to estimate at present, and it is equally impossible to formulate accurate anticipations of the future. In this connection, one of the most hopeful signs is the increasing prevalence of the scientific study of educational problems, thus enabling the State of to-day to call in the assistance of experts, a class which not many years ago could scarcely be found.

Two tasks, among others, will call for careful and immediate consideration at the hands of educational authorities. The present curriculum—owing to the rapid demand for new branches of study, and the attempt to add these to a schedule already full enough—will have to be so excised and adjusted that the evil of mental indigestion which seems to threaten all our schools may be eradicated, and time be given for more self-effort, more thoroughness, and more mental growth—a growth which has not been so hastily evolved from the constant pressure of numerous and at times conflicting subjects of study.

But, after all, the focus of the educational system is the teacher. The State may spend money, erect schools, frame regulations, and draw up curricula, yet to the trustee, and to the pupil also, the teacher's zeal, mental equipment, moral character, professional ability, and sympathetic insight are the only things which can make the system efficient. The second task of the State will be to so raise the status of the teacher that, after due preparation and proof of fitness for his duties, he may look forward to a life of steady employment at a living wage, and after thirty or forty years in the service of his country may be assured of a pension which may enable him to spend his declining years in comfort. For the teacher, unlike the business or

the professional man, cannot lay down the burden of daily tasks gradually, he cannot depute to a junior partner or an assistant the major share and do only so much as he feels able for, but must either do his full day's work in competition with younger men, or drop out entirely to make way for others.

In France and Germany the teacher is a State servant with an honorable position, sure tenure of office, and certain pension for old age; in the United States and Canada, while the course of training has eliminated the unfit and raised salaries, nothing further has been done; in England complicated schemes of superannuation have been experimented with during the last five years, but the amount contributed has not greatly solved the difficulty. The prospects are that the example of France and Germany will be followed in other States, and a professional position so created and so supported will place the State in a position to demand that only those with the highest qualfications of head and heart shall assume one of the most important functions that man is called upon to discharge, namely, the development of the mind and character of the future nation.

APPENDIX A.

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APPENDIX B.

STATISTICS

	Date of Reports	Population in Millions	Public School Enrollment	Per Cent. of Pop'n Enrolled	Expenditures	Per Capita Expend're
England	1908-9	35	6,060,110	17.14	$106,856,829	$ 17.63
Germany	1906	61	10,224,125	17.0	$124,420,918	$ 12.17
Prussia	1906	37	6,484,092	19.04	$ 78,122,786	$ 12.67
United States	1909	90	17,506,175	19.04	$401,397,747	$ 31.65
France	1907	39	5,600,041	14.02	$ 54,902,722	$ 11.92
Ontario	1910	3	401,882	22.27	$ 10,979,368	$ 20 34

Notes.

(a) In Germany $36,000,000 approximately was the State contribution.

(b) In the United States 5,056,798 was the public school enrolment in city schools.

(c) The percentage of expense contributed from State taxes was 15.7. The District of Columbia was wholly federal grant; 10 States gave over 30 per cent. of the expenditure; 3 States over 50 per cent.

(d) In Ontario the legislative grants for that year totalled $981,568.

(e) The figures $31.65 include High as well as Common schools in the report.